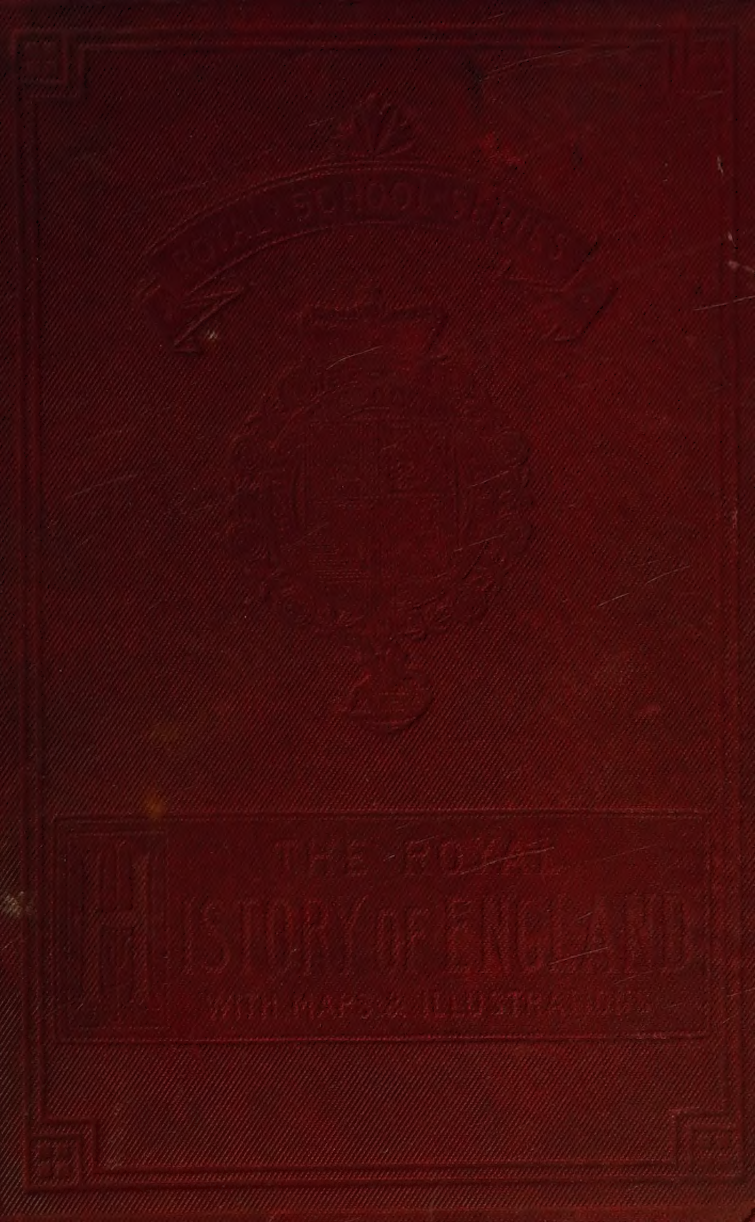

THE ROYAL
HISTORY OF ENGLAND

The Royal School Series.

THE "ROYAL"

HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

WITH MAPS, NOTES, AND QUESTIONS.

LONDON:
T NELSON AND SONS, PATERNOSTER ROW;
EDINBURGH; AND NEW YORK.

1889

PREFACE.

THIS HISTORY OF ENGLAND is divided into Books and Chapters, according to the leading features by which each great period of English History is characterized. This arrangement is important, as showing the continuity of the History of the English People, and the gradual development of the English Constitution. At the same time, the Succession of Dynasties and Reigns of the Sovereigns of England is shown, the commencement and the close of each being distinctly marked. The work is divided into the following sections :—

Introduction.—CELTIC AND ROMAN BRITAIN.
Book I.—THE OLD ENGLISH KINGDOMS.
II.—FEUDAL MONARCHY
III.—ABSOLUTE MONARCHY.
IV.—LIMITED MONARCHY

The "Great Events" of English History are described more in detail, as well as in more graphic style, than the less important incidents.

Geographical references and all other points of difficulty are explained in Foot-notes. Exhaustive Questions, which may be used as the basis of Composition Exercises, as well as to test home preparation, are added to each chapter.

The Sketch Maps will be found an invaluable aid in the study of history.

The Appendix contains a series of Biographical Sketches of the leading characters in English History; which will be useful

both for illustrating the History and as affording outlines for exercises in English Composition.

A summary of Contemporary Foreign Events, with Notes and Questions, is given after each chapter or historical period. These summaries form a complete outline of general history, and tend to throw much useful light on the foreign affairs in which England has frequently been so prominently engaged.

ABRIDGED FROM THIS WORK.

THE "ROYAL" CODE HISTORIES.

A Series of Small Histories adapted to the Education Code.

1. ENGLAND—Part I. From the Time of the Romans to the Norman Conquest. (*For Standard IV.*) Price 3d.

2. ENGLAND—Part II. From the Norman Conquest to the Accession of Henry VII. (*For Standard V.*) Price 7d.

3. ENGLAND—Part III. From the Reign of Henry VII. to the Death of George III. (*For Standard VI.*) Price 9d.

Chronological Table of Contents.

INTRODUCTION.

I. Celtic Britain 21
II. The Romans in Britain—
B.C.
55. Caesar's First Visit 23
54. Caesar's Second Visit 24
A.D.
43. Britain a Roman Province 24
59. Overthrow of Boadicea 25
78. Agricola Governor 25
81. Agricola's chain of Forts 25
84. Defeat of Galgacus 25
121. Hadrian's Rampart 26
139. Antonine's Wall 26
208. Wall of Severus 27
286. The Saxon Pirates 27
304. Persecution of Christians 28
306. Constantine the Great Proclaimed at York 28
410. Withdrawal of the Roman Legions 29
CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS 30

BOOK FIRST.—THE OLD ENGLISH KINGDOMS.

CHAPTER I.—THE ENGLISH CONQUEST.

449. Hengest and Horsa arrive .. 36
457–603. Foundation of the Old English States 38
552. The Welsh driven westward .. 38
CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS 40

CHAPTER II.—CHRISTIANITY IN ENGLAND.

430–432. Palladius and St. Patrick in Ireland 41
563. Columba in Iona 42
597. Arrival of Augustine 43
627. Paulinus at York 45
664. Synod of Whitby 45

CHAPTER III.—THE RIVAL KINGDOMS.

603. Bernicia and Deira united, and Northumbria formed .. 46
626. Edwin of Northumbria Overlord 46
633. Edwin slain at Hatfield 46
655. Oswi slays Penda 47
685. Egfrith slain at Nectansmere. 47
784. Offa of Mercia Overlord 47
800. Accession of Egbert in Wessex 47
827. Egbert of Wessex Overlord. 47
CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS 48

CHAPTER IV.—THE STRUGGLE WITH THE DANES.

787. The Danes on the North-East Coast 51
835. Egbert defeats them at Hengest's-Down 51
868. They conquer East Anglia ... 51
870. Mercia Tributary to them 52
871. *ALFRED*, King of Wessex 52
Alfred defeated at Wilton ... 52
876. The Danes seize Exeter 52
878. Alfred in Athelney 53
Alfred victorious at Ethandune 53
Peace of Wedmore 53
892. Hasting's Invasion 55
894. Æthelred victorious at Buttington 55
895. The Danes driven out 55
901. Death of Alfred 55

CHAPTER V.—THE DANISH CONQUEST.

912. The Norsemen settle in France 56
924. Edward, Overlord of all Britain 57
937. Æthelstan victorious at Brunanburh 57
946. Dunstan banished 57
978. The Witan at Calne 58
980. Æthelred the Unready institutes Danegeld 58
1002. Massacre of the Danes 59
1013. Sweyn's Invasion 59
1016. Canute's Invasion 59
1017. Canute sole King 59
CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS 60

CHAPTER VI.—THE DANISH KINGS.

1017. *CANUTE* 61
The Four Earldoms 61
1020. Godwin, Earl of Wessex 62
Leofric, Earl of Mercia 62
1035. *HAROLD I.* 63
1040. *HARDICANUTE* 63
CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS 64

CHAPTER VII.—THE ENGLISH RESTORATION.

1042. *EDWARD THE CONFESSOR* .. 65
1051. Banishment of Earl Godwin and his Family 66
1052. Visit of William of Normandy to England 66
Godwin restored 66
1053. Harold succeeds Godwin 66
1057. Arrival of Edward the Ætheling 67
1065. Tostig expelled from Northumbria 67
1066. *HAROLD II.* 68
Harold victorious at Stamford Bridge 68

CHAPTER VIII.—SOCIAL CONDITION: OLD ENGLISH PERIOD.

Government — Morality — Daily Life — The Monasteries — The Language, &c. 69

BOOK SECOND.—FEUDAL MONARCHY.

CHAPTER I.—THE BATTLE OF HASTINGS.

1066 William lands at Pevensey .. 77
Marches to Hastings 78
Harold at Senlac Hill 79
1066. Negotiations 79
Advance of the Normans 80
The Death of Harold 82

CHAPTER II.—THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

1066. William marches on London 83
WILLIAM I. 83
1068. Revolt of the English 84
1069. Revolt in the North 84
1072. Hereward subdued and the Conquest complete 85

CHAPTER III.—FEUDALISM IN ENGLAND.

1072. The Feudal System 86
1086. Domesday Book 87
The Curfew Bell 87
1075. The "Bridal of Norwich" 88
1077. Siege of Gerberoi 88
The Cinque Ports 88
1087. Death of the Conqueror 89
WILLIAM II. 89
1088. Odo's Plot on behalf of Robert 89
1091. Agreement regarding Normandy 90
1093. Defeat and Death of Malcolm of Scotland 90
CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS 90

CHAPTER IV.—THE CROWN AGAINST THE CHURCH: I. ANSELM.

1089. Death of Lanfranc 92
1093. Anselm, Archbishop 92
1097. Flight of Anselm 92
1095. Mowbray's Plot 92
1096. Rufus gains Normandy 93
1100. *HENRY I.* 93
1100. Charter of Liberties 93
Henry marries Edith-Matilda 94
1101. Robert invades England 94
1106. Robert taken prisoner at Tenchebrai 94
1107. Settlement with Anselm 94

CHAPTER V.—GROWTH OF THE BARONS' POWER.

1119. Henry secures Normandy 95
1120. Death of Prince William 95
1125. The Angevin Marriage 96
1135. *STEPHEN* 96
1138. Battle of the Standard 97
1139. Maud's Invasion 98
1141. Battle of Lincoln 98
1142. Flight of Maud 99
1152. Treaty of Winchester 100
1154. Death of Stephen 100
CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS 100

CHAPTER VI.—NORMAN CUSTOMS AND NORMAN LIFE.

Chivalry—Courts of Justice—Baronial Castles—Meals—Dress—Romances, &c. 102

CHAPTER VII.—THE CROWN AGAINST THE CHURCH: II. BECKET

1154. *HENRY II.* 110
1162. Becket, Archbishop 111
1164. Constitutions of Clarendon 111
1170. Murder of Becket 111
1171. Strongbow in Ireland 112
1172. Henry receives the Homage of the Irish 113
Capture of William of Scotland 113
1181. The Assize of Arms 113
Itinerant Judges 113

CHAPTER VIII.—ENGLAND SEVERED FROM FRANCE.

1189. Disaffection of the French Barons 114
1189. *RICHARD I.* 115
1190. The Third Crusade 115

1191. Acre taken 115
1192. Richard leaves Palestine—
Captured..... 116
1194. Richard's Release..... 116
1199. French War..... 117
1199. *JOHN*..... 117
1204. Loss of English Possessions
in France 118
CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN
EVENTS..... 118

CHAPTER IX.—MAGNA CHARTA.

1208. The Papal Interdict..... 120
1214. French War..... 120
1215. The King at Oxford..... 122
At Runnymede..... 123

CHAPTER X.—THE CROWN AGAINST THE BARONS.

1216. Appeal to Louis of France.. 125
HENRY III. 126
Charter of Forests..... 126
1217. Defeat of Louis at Lincoln.. 126
1219. De Burgh, Regent..... 126
1225. Confirmation of the Great
Charter..... 127
1228. Death of Langton..... 127
1232. Disgrace of De Burgh 127
1236. Influx of Foreigners..... 127
1242. Renewed French War..... 128
1258. Revolt of the Barons under
De Montfort..... 129
The Provisions of Oxford... 129
1264. The Mise of Lewes..... 129
1265. The Commons called to
Parliament..... 129
Battle of Evesham..... 129
1270. Edward joins the Crusade .. 130
1272. *EDWARD I.*..... 130
CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN
EVENTS..... 131

CHAPTER XI.—WARS WITH WALES AND SCOTLAND.

1282. Reduction of Wales..... 133
1292. Edward Umpire in the Scot-
tish Dispute..... 134
1296. Edward overruns Scotland.. 134
1297. Wallace victorious at Stir-
ling Bridge..... 135
1298. Wallace defeated at Falkirk 135
1305. Execution of Wallace 135
1298. Edward confirms the Great
Charter..... 136
1307. Edward marches toward
Scotland..... 136
EDWARD II...... 136
1310. Articles of Reform, by the
Lords Ordainers..... 137
1314. Battle of Bannockburn.... 137
1321. Lancaster's Rising..... 138
1327. Flight of the King..... 138
EDWARD III...... 139
1328. Treaty of Northampton—
Scottish Independence re-
cognized..... 139
1330. Execution of Mortimer..... 139
1333. Battle of Halidon Hill..... 139
CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN
EVENTS..... 140

CHAPTER XII.—THE FIRST FRENCH WAR.

1338. Edward claims the French
Crown 142
1340. Battle of Sluys..... 143
1346. Battle of Crecy..... 145
Battle of Nevil's Cross..... 146
1347. Capture of Calais..... 146
1348. The Black Plague..... 146
1351. Statute of Labourers..... 146
1356. Battle of Poitiers—Cap-
ture of King John..... 146
1360. Treaty of Bretigny..... 147
1367. Battle of Navarrete..... 147
1374. Weakness of the English in
France..... 147
CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN
EVENTS..... 148

CHAPTER XIII.—THE BARONS AGAINST THE COMMONS.

1376. Barons of the Royal Council 149
The Good Parliament..... 149
Death of the Black Prince.. 150
1353. Statutes of Praemunire and Provisors..... 150
1377. Wyclif before the Bishop of London..... 150
1377. *RICHARD II.*..... 151
1381. Tyler's Insurrection..... 151
1385. Invasion of Scotland..... 152
1388. Battle of Otterbourne..... 152
The Wonderful Parliament. 153
CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS..... 154

CHAPTER XIV.—SOCIAL CONDITION: TIME OF THE ANGEVINS.

Food—Dwellings—Wages—Dress—Sports—Learning, &c. 154

CHAPTER XV.—THE LANCASTRIAN REVOLUTION.

1398. Hereford banished..... 158
1399. Richard deposed..... 160
HENRY IV...... 160
1401. Statute of Heretics 160
1402. Battle of Nesbit Moor..... 161
Battle of Homildon Hill... 161
1403. Battle of Shrewsbury 161
1405. Capture of James IV. of Scotland..... 161
1413. *HENRY V.*..... 162
1414. Persecution of the Lollards. 163
1417. Execution of Oldcastle..... 163
CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS..... 164

CHAPTER XVI.—THE SECOND FRENCH WAR.

1415. Henry claims the French Crown..... 164
Battle of Agincourt 165
1419. Normandy subdued..... 167
1420. Treaty of Troyes..... 167
1422. *HENRY VI.*..... 168
1423. Battle of Crevant 168
1424. Battle of Verneuil..... 168
1428. Siege of Orleans..... 168
1429. Battle of Rouverai..... 169
Joan of Arc..... 169
1431. Death of the Maid..... 170
1435. Congress of Arras 170
1444. Truce for Two Years 170
1451. Expulsion of the English from France..... 171
CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS..... 171

CHAPTER XVII.—WARS OF THE ROSES: DESTRUCTION OF FEUDALISM.

1447. Death of Gloucester and of Beaufort 172
1450. Death of Suffolk..... 173
Cade's Rebellion..... 173
1455. Wars of the Roses begin. 174
First Battle of St. Albans (Yorkists victorious)..... 174
1459. Battle of Bloreheath (Yorkists victorious)..... 174
1460. Battle of Northampton—Henry taken Prisoner.... 174
Battle of Wakefield (Lancastrians victorious)—York slain..... 174
1461. Battle of Mortimer's Cross (Yorkists victorious)..... 176
Second Battle of St. Albans (Lancastrians victorious).. 176
Henry Deposed 176
EDWARD IV...... 176
Battle of Towton (Yorkists victorious)..... 176
1464. Battle of Hedgeley Moor (Yorkists victorious)..... 177
Battle of Hexham (Yorkists victorious)..... 177
Edward marries Lady Elizabeth Grey 177

1464. Warwick quarrels with Edward 177
1470. Flight of Edward 177
1471. Battle of Barnet 177
1471. Battle of Tewkesbury (Yorkists victorious) 178
CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS 179

CHAPTER XVIII.—CAXTON AND THE PRINTING-PRESS.

1468. Caxton at Bruges 180
1471. Caxton at Cologne—his first Book 180
1477. The Almonry at Westminster 180
1491. De Worde and Pynson 181

CHAPTER XIX.—SOCIAL CONDITION: FIFTEENTH CENTURY

Extinction of Villanage—Government—Manor-Houses—Meals—Dramatic Performances, &c. 182

BOOK THIRD.—ABSOLUTE MONARCHY.

CHAPTER I.—ASCENDENCY OF THE CROWN.

1475. Renewed claim to the French Crown 186
Peace of Pecquigny 186
1483. *EDWARD V.* 187
Richard of Gloucester, Regent 187
Gloucester, Protector 188
1483. *RICHARD III.* 188
Murder of the Princes 189
Buckingham's Rising 189
1485. Battle of Bosworth-field. 190
HENRY VII. 190
Henry marries Elizabeth of York 190

CHAPTER II.—AGGRANDIZEMENT OF THE CROWN.

1486. Simnel's Imposture 192
1487. Battle of Stoke 193
1492. French War 195
Peace of Estaples 195
Warbeck's Imposture 195
1494. Poynings's Law in Ireland .. 196
1498. Warbeck in Cornwall 196
1499. Surrender and Death of Warbeck 196
1501. Marriage of Prince Arthur and Catherine of Aragon 197
1501. Extortions of Empson and Dudley 197
1503. Marriage of the Princess Margaret and James IV. of Scotland 197
1492. Columbus discovers America 198
1497. Cabot discovers Labrador .. 198
1509. *HENRY VIII.* 198
1513. Battle of Guinegate 199
Battle of Flodden 199
Epoch of Modern History .. 200
FOREIGN EVENTS 201

CHAPTER III.—PERSONAL GOVERNMENT.

1515. Wolsey, a Cardinal 203
1518. Wolsey Papal Legate 203
1519. Charles V., Emperor 204
1520. The Field of the Cloth of Gold 204
The Reformation in Germany 204
1520. Luther at Wittenberg 205
1521. Henry, Defender of the Faith 205
1523. Henry calls a Parliament .. 205
1525. Francis I. a Prisoner 205
CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS 206

CHAPTER IV.—THE FALL OF WOLSEY.

1527. Doubts regarding the King's Marriage 208
1529. The Trial 209
1530. Wolsey's Fall and Death. .. 211
CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS..... 212

CHAPTER V.—THE CROWN AGAINST THE POPE.

1530. The Divorce Case submitted to the Universities..... 213
1533. Cranmer, Archbishop..... 214
Henry marries Anne Boleyn 214
1534. Henry declared Head of the Church..... 214
1535. The Holy Maid of Kent.... 214
1536. Suppression of the minor Monasteries..... 215
1539. Suppression of the greater Monasteries..... 215
1536. Incorporation of Wales with England..... 215
Execution of Anne Boleyn.. 215
Jane Seymour, Queen..... 216
Coverdale's Bible published 216
1539. The Great Bible published 216
1536. The Pilgrimage of Grace.... 216
1537. Birth of Prince Edward—Death of Jane Seymour.. 217
1539. Statute of the Six Articles . 217
1540. Henry marries Anne of Cleves..... 217
Execution of Cromwell.... 218
Henry marries Catherine Howard..... 218
1542. Execution of Catherine Howard..... 218
1543. Henry marries Catherine Parr..... 218
1547. Execution of Surrey..... 219
EDWARD VI. 219
Hertford, Protector..... 219
Battle of Pinkie..... 220
CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS..... 221

CHAPTER VI.—THE REFORMATION.

1549. Forty-two Articles of Religion prepared..... 222
Fall of Somerset..... 223
Gardiner imprisoned..... 224
1550. Northumberland, Protector 224
1552. Somerset beheaded 224
1553. Lady Jane Grey proclaimed. 225
MARY I...... 225
Execution of Northumberland 225
CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS..... 226

CHAPTER VII.—THE MARIAN REACTION.

1553. Gardiner and Bonner released and restored..... 227
Cranmer and Ridley imprisoned..... 227
1554. Mary marries Philip of Spain 227
Execution of Lady Jane Grey and Dudley 227
1554. Parliament submits to Rome 228
1555. Execution of Rogers and Hooper..... 228
Execution of Ridley and Latimer 228
1556. Execution of Cranmer..... 229
1558. Calais recovered by France. 229

CHAPTER VIII.—PROTESTANTISM RESTORED

1558. *ELIZABETH*..... 230
1562. The Thirty-nine Articles adopted..... 230
1561. Mary Stewart quits France. 231
1562. Elizabeth aids the Huguenots..... 231
1568. Mary Stewart seeks refuge in England..... 231
1572. Execution of Norfolk..... 232
1569. Rising of the Roman Catholics of the North..... 232
FOREIGN EVENTS..... 233

CHAPTER IX.—SUPREMACY AND UNIFORMITY

1566. Rise of the Puritans 234
1559. Act of Supremacy 234
Act of Uniformity 234
Court of High Commission.. 235
1583. Court of High Commission gets new Powers..... 235
1572. Massacre of St. Bartholomew 235
1576. Rise of the Dutch Republic 235
1578. Elizabeth helps the Dutch.. 235
1586. Leicester in the Netherlands 236
Death of Sir Philip Sidney.. 236
1586. Babington's Conspiracy..... 236
1587. Execution of Mary Stewart.. 237
1588. The Spanish Armada 237
1598. Tyrone's Rebellion in Ireland..... 239
1601. Execution of Essex..... 239
The Commons oppose Monopolies 240
1603. Death of Elizabeth..... 240
CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS..... 241

CHAPTER X.—SOCIAL CONDITION: SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

Crime—Houses—Style of Living—Sports—Astrology—Alchemy—Trade—Revival of Learning, &c. 243

GENEALOGICAL TREES.

Connecting the Old English and Norman Lines 76
Connecting the Norman Kings and the Angevins..... 109
Rival Claims to the Scottish Throne..... 134
Rival Claims to the French Throne 142
Connecting the Angevins and the Houses of Lancaster and York .. 159
Connecting the Angevins and the Tudors..... 191

LISTS OF LEADING AUTHORS.

Old English Period..... 74
Norman Period 108
Time of the Angevins..... 157
Fifteenth Century..... 184
Sixteenth Century..... 250
Scottish Writers 251

SKETCH MAPS.

Roman Wall—Forth and Clyde... 26
Roman Wall—Tyne and Solway .. 26
Roman Britain..... 28
The English Migrations 35
Britain under the Angles and Saxons 39
The Strait of Dover—Hastings.... 78
North Yorkshire—Northallerton.. 97
France in Provinces 99
Ireland in the Twelfth Century.... 112
Coast of Syria—Acre..... 115
Banks of the Thames—Runnymede 122
Coast of Sussex—Lewes 129
Banks of the Severn—Evesham .. 130
Basin of the Forth—Stirling 135
Route of Edward III. in France... 143
Battle of Crecy 144
North-west of France—Agincourt. 166
Basin of the Loire—Orleans—Poitiers..... 169
England—Wars of the Roses..... 175
Valley of the Trent—Bosworth; Stoke..... 193
North of England—Flodden..... 199

Chronological Table of Contents.

PART II.

BOOK THIRD.—ABSOLUTE MONARCHY—(*Continued.*)

CHAPTER XI.—THE UNION OF THE CROWNS.

1603. *JAMES I.* 253
The Main and the Bye Plot 255
1604. Hampton Court Conference 255
1605. The Gunpowder Plot..... 256
1611. Plantation of Ulster..... 257
1612. Death of Prince Henry..... 257
1617. James's Visit to Scotland .. 258
FOREIGN EVENTS..... 258

CHAPTER XII.—KING BY DIVINE RIGHT.

1610. Dissolution of James's First Parliament..... 260
1614. The Second Parliament—Pym and Eliot 260
1618. Death of Ralegh..... 261
1620. Emigration of the Pilgrim Fathers..... 261
1621. Degradation of Bacon..... 262
CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS..... 263

CHAPTER XIII.—THE CROWN AGAINST THE COMMONS.

1621. Protest of the Commons 264
1623. Prince Charles in Spain.... 265
1625. *CHARLES I.* 265
Revival of Benevolences.... 265
1626. Charles's Second Parliament dismissed..... 265
1627. War with France 266
1628. Death of Buckingham..... 266
The Petition of Right.... 266
1631. Strafford's Thorough..... 267
The Star Chamber..... 267
1634. Ship Money..... 268
1637. The Service Book in Scotland 268
1638. The National Covenant 269
1640. The Short Parliament..... 269
CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS..... 271

CHAPTER XIV.—THE LONG PARLIAMENT.

1640. First meeting of the Long Parliament 272
1641. Arrest of Strafford and Laud 272
Execution of Strafford..... 274
The Grand Remonstrance 274
1641. Roundhead and Cavalier... 275
1642. Attempted Arrest of the Five Members..... 277
Flight of the Queen..... 278
The Militia Bill 278

CHAPTER XV.—THE CIVIL WAR.

1642. Declaration at Nottingham 279
Battle of Edgehill (indecisive) ... 280
1643. Bristol taken by the Royalists ... 280
Siege of Gloucester raised by Essex ... 280
First Battle of Newbury (Royalists defeated; Falkland killed) ... 280
Death of Hampden at Chalgrove-Field ... 280
The Solemn League and Covenant ... 282
1644. Battle of Marston Moor (Royalists defeated; success of Cromwell's Ironsides) ... 282
1644. Second Battle of Newbury (Royalists defeated) ... 282
1645. Execution of Laud ... 282
The Self-Denying Ordinance ... 283
Battle of Naseby (Royalists defeated) ... 283
Battle of Philiphaugh (Royalists defeated) ... 283
Surrender of Bristol ... 283
1646. Charles's Surrender to the Scots at Newark ... 284
1647. Charles at Carisbrook ... 285
1648. Pride's Purge ... 285
1649. Trial of the King ... 285
His Execution ... 286
CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS ... 288

CHAPTER XVI.—THE COMMONWEALTH.

1649. The Council of Government 289
Reduction of Ireland ... 290
1650. Charles II. in Scotland ... 290
Dunbar Drove (Cromwell victorious) ... 291
1651. Battle of Worcester (Cromwell victorious) ... 291
1652. War with Holland ... 292
1653. Expulsion of the Long Parliament ... 293
OLIVER, PROTECTOR ... 294
1654. Peace with Holland ... 294
1655. Jamaica ceded ... 294
1658. *RICHARD, PROTECTOR* ... 296
1659. Resignation of Richard ... 296
FOREIGN EVENTS ... 297

CHAPTER XVII.—RESTORATION OF MONARCHY.

1659. The Parliament reïnstated ... 298
1660. The Long Parliament dissolved ... 298
A Convention ... 298
CHARLES II. ... 299
1661. Restoration of Episcopacy ... 300
The Pensionary Parliament 301
Corporation Act ... 301
1662. Act of Uniformity ... 301
1664. Conventicle Act ... 301
1665. Five Mile Act ... 301
War with Holland ... 301
1667. Sheerness destroyed ... 302
1665. The Plague in London ... 302
1666. The Fire of London ... 302
Spread of Licentiousness ... 304
Rullion Green (Covenanters defeated) ... 305

CHAPTER XVIII.—THE STRUGGLE RENEWED.

1668. The Triple Alliance (England, Sweden, and Holland) ... 307
1670. Secret Treaty of Dover ... 307
The Cabal Ministry ... 308
1672. The Exchequer closed ... 308
1673. The Test Act—applied to the Duke of York ... 308
1674. Danby Prime Minister ... 309
1678. The "Popish Plot" ... 309
1679. The Council of Thirty ... 310
Habeas Corpus Act ... 310

1679. Drumclog (Covenanters victorious) 311
Bothwell Bridge (Covenanters defeated) 311
1680. Whig and Tory..... 313
1681. Parliament at Oxford 313
Charles an Absolute Monarch 313
CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS..... 314

CHAPTER XIX.—ABSOLUTE MONARCHY RESTORED.

1683. The Rye House Plot..... 316
1685. *JAMES II.*..... 317
Monmouth's Rebellion..... 317
Sedgemoor (Monmouth defeated) 319
1685. The Bloody Assize 320
1686. James's use of the Dispensing Power..... 320
1687. His Interference with the Universities 321

CHAPTER XX.—THE REVOLUTION.

1687. Parliament dissolved..... 322
1688. Second Declaration of Indulgence..... 323
Trial of the Seven Bishops 323
Landing of William of Orange 325
1688. Flight of James..... 326
1689. The Convention..... 326
Declaration of Right..... 326
The Revolution complete... 327
CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS..... 328

CHAPTER XXI.—SOCIAL CONDITION: THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

Surface of the Country—Population—Chief Towns—London—Coffee-houses—The Labouring Class—Inns—The "News-Letter," &c..... 328

BOOK FOURTH.—LIMITED MONARCHY.

CHAPTER I.—CONSTITUTIONAL GOVERNMENT.

1689. *WILLIAM III.* and *MARY II.* 337
Mutiny Act..... 338
Toleration Act..... 338
Bill of Rights 338
Killiecrankie (Death of Dundee) 339
Siege of Londonderry 339
1690. Battle of the Boyne (James defeated)..... 340
1691. Pacification of Limerick.. 341
1692. Massacre of Glencoe..... 341
Battle off La Hogue (French defeated)..... 341
1697. Treaty of Ryswick..... 343
Origin of the National Debt 343
The Bank of England..... 344
1694. Triennial Parliaments Bill.. 344
Death of Queen Mary..... 344
Freedom of the Press 345
1695. The Darien Scheme 345

CHAPTER II.—THE GRAND ALLIANCE: THE SPANISH SUCCESSION.

1698. Origin of the Cabinet..... 347
1701. War of the Spanish Succession..... 348
Act of Settlement 348
1701. The Grand Alliance (England, Germany, and Holland)..... 349
Death of James II. 349

1702. Death of William III. 350
ANNE..... 350
1704. Battle of Blenheim..... 351
Capture of Gibraltar..... 351
1706. Battle of Ramilies..... 352
1707. Battle of Almanza (French victorious)..... 352
1708. Battle of Oudenarde..... 352
1709. Battle of Malplaquet..... 353
1713. Treaty of Utrecht..... 353
1714. Treaty of Rastadt (France and Germany)..... 353
CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS..... 354

CHAPTER III.—THE ASCENDENCY OF THE COMMONS.

1704. Harley and St. John in the Ministry..... 356
1707. The Scottish Union..... 357
1706. Mrs. Masham in the Palace. 358
1708. Dismissal of Harley, Resignation of St. John..... 358
1710. Trial of Sacheverell..... 359
1710. Harley Premier..... 359
Occasional Conformity Act.. 359
1711. Marlborough dismissed from his offices..... 359
1712. Harley's creation of Peers 360
1714. *GEORGE I.*..... 361
Whig Ascendency..... 361

CHAPTER IV.—THE 'FIFTEEN: THE SOUTH SEA BUBBLE

1715. Rising of the Earl of Mar in Scotland..... 365
Battle of Sheriffmuir..... 366
1716. Departure of the Pretender. 366
The Septennial Act..... 367
1718. The Quadruple Alliance (England, Germany, France, and Holland).... 367
1720. The South Sea Scheme..... 368
Walpole's Remedies..... 369

CHAPTER V.—WALPOLE IN POWER.

1721. Walpole Premier..... 370
1722. Bishop Atterbury banished. 371
1723. Return of Bolingbroke..... 371
1724. Wood's Halfpence..... 371
1725. The Patriots, led by Pulteney 372
1727. *GEORGE II.*..... 372
1733. The Excise Bill..... 373
1736. The Porteous Riot..... 373
1737. Death of Queen Caroline.... 374
1739. Spanish War..... 374
1744. Anson's Voyage round the World..... 374
The Methodists..... 375
1742. Resignation of Walpole..... 375
CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS..... 376

CHAPTER VI.—THE 'FORTY-FIVE.

1740. War of the Austrian Succession..... 377
1743. Battle of Dettingen..... 378
1745. Battle of Fontenoy..... 378
Prince Charles-Edward in Scotland..... 378
Battle of Prestonpans (Jacobites victorious).... 379
1745. Invasion of England..... 380
1746. Battle of Falkirk (Charles successful)..... 381
Battle of Culloden (Jacobites routed)..... 382
Flight of Prince Charles.... 383
1748. Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle .. 384
FOREIGN EVENTS..... 385

CHAPTER VII.—THE GREAT COMMONER.

1735. Pitt Member for Old Sarum 386
1743. The Pelhams in Power..... 387
1746. Pitt Paymaster of the Forces 387
1751. Death of Frederick Prince of Wales..... 387
1752. Correction of the Calendar.. 387
1756. **The Seven Years' War**.... 388
Admiral Byng shot..... 388
1757. **The Newcastle-Pitt Ministry**..... 388
1756. The Black Hole of Calcutta. 389
1757. Clive's Victory at **Plassey**.. 390
1759. Battle of Minden (French defeated)..... 390
Blockade of Quebec..... 391
The Plains of Abraham.. 394
1760. Conquest of Canada..... 396
GEORGE III...... 396
1761. The Family Compact of the Bourbons..... 396
Resignation of Pitt 396
FOREIGN EVENTS..... 398

CHAPTER VIII.—LIFE IN ENGLAND: THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

Streets and Roads—Furniture—Dress—Promenades—The Theatre—Manners in Church—Grub Street—Citizen Life, &c. 399

CHAPTER IX.—AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE.

1763. Treaty of Paris 404
Prosecution of John Wilkes 405
1765. The American **Stamp Act** (Grenville)..... 406
1766. Repeal of the Stamp Act (Rockingham)..... 406
1767. Taxes on Tea, Glass, &c. (Grafton)..... 406
1770. Lord North, Premier..... 406
1773. The Tea-ships in **Boston Harbour**..... 407
1774. Congress of Philadelphia.... 407
1775. Skirmish at Lexington..... 408
1775. **Battle of Bunker Hill**..... 408
Invasion of Canada 410
1776. **Declaration of Independence**..... 410
1777. Burgoyne's Surrender at **Saratoga**..... 411
1778. Death of Chatham..... 411
1781. Surrender of Cornwallis at **Yorktown**..... 412
1783. Independence acknowledged 412
1779–82. Great **Siege of Gibraltar** 412
CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS..... 414

CHAPTER X.—INDIA.

1765. **Lord Clive**, Governor of Bengal..... 416
1773. The Regulating Act—**Warren Hastings**, first Governor-General..... 417
Lord Clive's acquittal..... 417
1780–83. War with Hyder Ali.... 418
1767–79. Captain Cook's Voyages. 418
1780. The Gordon Riots..... 418
1783. **William Pitt**, the younger, Premier..... 419
Erection of the Board of Control..... 420
1788–95. Impeachment of Warren Hastings 420
1799. Annexation of **Mysore**..... 421

CHAPTER XI.—THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

1789. The Bastille stormed..... 422
1791. The Canada Constitutional Act..... 423
1793. Louis XVI. and his Queen guillotined..... 424
1794. Trial of Horne Tooke 424

1795. First Coälition against France 425
1797. Bank Restriction Act..... 425
Mutiny at the Nore..... 425
Battle off Cape St. Vincent. 425
Battle off Camperdown 425
1798. Battle of the Nile..... 427
1799. Siege of Acre raised..... 427
1801. Battle of Alexandria..... 428
1798. Battle of Vinegar Hill..... 428
1801. The Irish Union..... 429
Resignation of Pitt..... 429

CHAPTER XII.—THE CONTINENTAL WARS.

1799. Second Coälition against France..... 431
1800. Malta taken by England... 432
Armed Neutrality—League of Northern Powers..... 432
1301. Bombardment of Copenhagen 432
1802. Treaty of Amiens..... 433
1803. Renewal of War..... 433
Emmet's Rising..... 434
1804. Pitt's Second Ministry..... 434
1804. Third Coälition against France..... 435
1805. Battle of Trafalgar..... 435
1806. Death of Pitt and Fox..... 437
Fourth Coälition against France..... 437
Berlin Decree..... 438
1807. Orders in Council..... 438
Second Bombardment of Copenhagen..... 439
FOREIGN EVENTS..... 440

CHAPTER XIII.—THE PENINSULAR WAR.

1808. Joseph Buonaparte, King of Spain 443
Battle of Vimiera 443
Convention of Cintra..... 443
1809. Battle of Corunna 444
Battle of Talavera..... 444
The Walcheren Expedition. 444
The Perceval Ministry..... 445
1810. Battle of Busaco..... 445
Torres Vedras..... 445
Burdett Riots in London... 445
1811. The Regency..... 447
Battle of Barrosa 447
1811. Battle of Fuentes d'Onoro.. 447
Battle of Albuera..... 447
The Luddite Riots..... 447
1812. Badajoz taken 448
Battle of Salamanca..... 448
The Liverpool Ministry 448
Napoleon in Russia..... 448
1813. Battle of Vitoria..... 448
Battle of Toulouse..... 448
First Peace of Paris..... 449
1812. War with the United States 450
The *Shannon* and *Chesapeake* 450
Treaty of Ghent..... 450

CHAPTER XIV.—WATERLOO.

1815. The Vienna Congress..... 451
Return of Napoleon to France..... 451
Engagements at Quatre Bras and Ligny..... 452
1815. Battle of Waterloo..... 452
Napoleon at St. Helena.... 455
Second Peace of Paris.... 456
The National Debt..... 456
FOREIGN EVENTS..... 457

CHAPTER XV.—PARLIAMENTARY REFORM.

1815. Great Distress in England —The Corn Act..... 458
1817. Riots and Seditious Meetings..... 459
1819. The affair of Peterloo..... 460
The Six Acts 460
1820. *GEORGE IV.*..... 460
The Cato Street Conspiracy. 461

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE OF CONTENTS.

1820. Queen Caroline 461
1822. Canning Foreign Secretary.. 462
1825. Commercial Crisis..... 462
1828. Wellington Premier..... 463
Repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts 463
1829. Roman Catholic Emancipation..... 463
1830. *WILLIAM IV.*..... 464
1831. The Reform Agitation..... 464
1832. The Reform Act..... 464
FOREIGN EVENTS..... 466

CHAPTER XVI.—FINANCIAL REFORM.

1833. Emancipation of Slaves 468
1834. The Melbourne Ministry.... 468
New Poor Law..... 469
1835. Municipal Reform Act..... 469
1837. *VICTORIA*..... 470
Canadian Rebellion..... 470
1838. Anti-Corn-Law League..... 471
The Chartists..... 471
1839. Afghan War..... 472
1842. Forcing of the Khyber Pass 473
1841. The Second Peel Ministry.. 473
1842. Sliding-Scale Corn Act..... 473
The Income Tax..... 474
The New Tariff..... 474
1843. Agitation for Repeal..... 474
Conquest of Sindh..... 475
1845. Sikh War..... 476
Potato blight..... 476
1846. Repeal of the Corn Laws.... 476
The Russell Ministry..... 477
CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS..... 478

CHAPTER XVII.—COLONIAL PROGRESS.

1847. Responsible Government in Canada..... 479
1848. Third Revolution in France 479
1849. The Punjab Annexed 480
1851. The Great Exhibition..... 480
1851. Australian Gold..... 481
1852. First Derby Ministry..... 481
Burmese War..... 481
Death of Wellington..... 482
The Aberdeen Ministry 482

CHAPTER XVIII.—THE CRIMEAN WAR AND THE INDIAN MUTINY.

1853. Russia in the Principalities. 483
1854. Declaration of War by England and France..... 483
Bombardment of Odessa.... 484
Battle of the Alma..... 485
Battle of Balaklava..... 485
Battle of Inkermann 486
1855. The Palmerston Ministry... 487
Battle of the Tchernaya.... 487
Evacuation of Sebastopol... 488
1855. Bombardment of Sveaborg.. 488
1856. Defence of Kars..... 488
1857. The Indian Mutiny 489
Siege of Delhi..... 489
1858. Relief of Lucknow..... 491
Second Derby Ministry..... 491
Abolition of the East India Company..... 491
CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS..... 492

CHAPTER XIX.—PROGRESS OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

Steam-ships and Railways—The Penny Postage and the Telegraph—Ironclads and Turret-ships—African Exploration, &c..... 494

CHAPTER XX.—THE CONSTITUTION.

Its Composite Character—The Sovereign—The House of Lords—The House of Commons—The Cabinet—Law-making—Government of the Colonies 502

APPENDIX *A.*—Summary of Recent Events 510
APPENDIX *B.*—Contemporary Foreign Events 515
APPENDIX *C.*—Biographies 519
APPENDIX *D.*—Pronunciation of Proper Names 534
INDEX 535

SKETCH MAPS.

England, to illustrate the Civil War 281
Ayrshire 312
Sedgemoor and New Forest 319
Torbay 325
East of Ireland—The Boyne 340
Argyleshire—Glencoe 342
The Low Countries 344
Windsor to Gravesend 349
Strait of Gibraltar 351
Holland 352
East of Scotland 366
North of Scotland—The 'Forty-five 379
The South-east of Scotland 380
Culloden Moor 382
Bengal—Plassey 389
Canada—Quebec 392
Siege of Quebec 393
United States 407
Boston and Bunker Hill 408
Southern India 417
The Nile and Aboukir Bay 427
The Sound—Copenhagen 432
North-west of Spain 444
South-west of Spain 446
North-east of Spain 449
Belgium 453
Field of Waterloo 454
Afghanistan 472
The Punjab 475
The Danubian Principalities 484
The Gulf of Finland 485
The Crimea 486
Delhi and Oudh 490
Abyssinia 512
Lorraine and Alsace—showing the ceded Territory 517

LISTS OF LEADING AUTHORS, ARTISTS, &c.

Seventeenth Century 334
Eighteenth Century 403
Close of the Eighteenth Century ... 429
Nineteenth Century 498

GENEALOGICAL TREES

Connecting the Tudors and the Stewarts 254
Connecting the Stewarts with the House of Brunswick 363
The House of Brunswick 364

HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

INTRODUCTION.

I.—CELTIC BRITAIN.

Before 55 B.C.

1. The Celts.
2. Their Condition and Customs.
3. State of the Country.
4. The Mistress of the World.
5. Caesar's First Visit to Britain.
6. Caesar's Second Visit.
7. Britain a Roman Province.
8. Boadicea.
9. Agricola in Britain.
10. Agricola's Forts.
11. Agricola in Scotland.
12. The Walls of Hadrian and Antonine.
13. The Wall of Severus.
14. The Divisions of Roman Britain.
15. The Saxon Pirates.
16. Christianity in Britain.
17. The Romans Withdraw.
18. Effects of the Roman Occupation.
19. Traces in the Language.

1. THE earliest inhabitants of Britain of whom anything is certainly known were **Celts**[1]—people of the same race as the early inhabitants of Gaul (France). They were a brave and hardy people, fond of war and the chase; but civilization and the useful arts had made little progress among them when the Romans first came in contact with them, in the first century before the Christian era.

[1] *Celts.*—Celts (the people), and Celtic (their speech), belong to the family called *Aryan*, from a Sanskrit word meaning "excellent," "noble;" or *Indo-European*, because its area extends from India to the west of Europe. It includes seven stocks:—(1.) Sanskrit; (2.) Persic; (3.) Greek; (4.) Latin; (5.) Teutonic; (6.) Sclavonic; (7.) Celtic. Of the Celtic stock there are two main branches—(*a*) Gadhelic or Gaelic, including Irish, Scottish Gaelic, and Manx; (*b*) Cymric, including Welsh, Cornish (now extinct), and Breton. The only other family of languages in the civilized world is the *Semitic;* so called from Shem, the son of Noah, by whose descendants they are spoken. It includes Hebrew, Phoenician, Syriac, Chaldee, Arabic, and Ethiopic.

2. The natives of the interior lived a pastoral life. They sowed no corn, but lived on milk and flesh. Those in the far north were often obliged to feed on the roots and fruits that grew wild in the woods. They clad themselves in skins, leaving their limbs bare; and on these they stained devices in blue with the juice of a plant called *woad*. Those who lived in the south-east were, from intercourse with the Continent, more civilized than the others. They wore woollen clothes, woven in many colours; and they adorned themselves with chains and ornaments of bronze, and sometimes of silver and gold. The Welsh, and the Gaels of Scotland and of Ireland, are the descendants of these ancient Britons.

STONEHENGE.

3. In the early period referred to, the country was covered with marsh and forest, except in the south-east, where there were some patches of rudely-tilled ground. The rude monumental stones found in different parts of England, the cromlechs[1] of Anglesey, the stone circles of Stonehenge,[2] and the

[1] *Crom'lech.*—A large flat stone resting on two or three stone uprights. Cromlechs are found in Anglesey and other parts of Wales, and in Devonshire and Cornwall in England.

[2] *Stone'henge.*—Two circles of huge stones in the south of Salisbury Plain, in Wiltshire. The general opinion till lately was that they were the remains of a Druidical temple. It has recently been discovered that their purpose was astronomical.

barrows,[1] near the latter, are by some supposed to be Celtic remains. Others, however, believe them to be relics of an earlier race, which the Celtic wave obliterated.

II.—THE ROMANS IN BRITAIN.

55 B.C. to 410 A.D.—465 years.

4. The little that we know regarding the Celtic inhabitants of Britain we have learned from the **Romans**, who first visited the island in 55 B.C. The Roman Republic was at that time the most powerful State in the world. Indeed, nearly the whole of the then known world was subject to its sway. For nearly a century Greece[2] had been a Roman province; and Carthage,[3] Rome's most powerful rival, had been lying in ruins. Her dominions extended from the Euphrates in the east to the Atlantic in the west, and from the Danube and the Rhine to Africa; and she styled herself, not unreasonably, the Mistress of the World.

JULIUS CAESAR.

5. The general who had pushed the Roman conquests furthest northward was **Julius Caesar.**[4]

---

[1] *Barrows.*—Huge burial mounds, common in the northern countries of Europe.

[2] *Greece.*—Made a Roman province in 146 B.C.

[3] *Carthage.*—On north coast of Africa, near Tunis; founded 878 B.C. Its greatness reached its zenith in the time of Hannibal, who conquered the greater part of Spain in 219 B.C. Three great wars (called Punic Wars) were carried on by Carthage with Rome: First Punic War, 264–241 B.C.; second, 218–201 B.C.; third, 149–146 B.C. In the last-mentioned year Carthage was taken by Scipio, and burned to the ground by order of the Senate.

[4] *Julius Caesar.*—One of the greatest of the Romans, born 100 B.C. He conquered Gaul, triumphed over Pompey in the Civil War, settled the affairs of Greece, and subdued Spain. He became the most powerful man in the State. His rivals suspected him of aiming at the sovereignty, and formed a plot against his life. He was assassinated in the Senate House, 43 B.C. He was great also as an orator and a writer. His chief work is his *Commentaries* on his Gallic Wars.

While subduing the tribes of Gaul, he had heard of Britain and the Britons. He was ambitious of being the first Roman to visit the unexplored island, and probably of adding it to his conquests. He crossed the Strait of Dover with 80 ships and 12,000 troops. The Britons defended their shores bravely, and the Romans had difficulty

55 in landing. At length the standard-bearer of B.C. the Tenth Legion[1] leaped into the sea, crying, "Follow me;" and the soldiers dashed through the surf. Once on shore, Roman discipline prevailed over rude valour, and the invaders made good their ground. Four days later, however, a storm shattered the fleet; and Caesar, afraid lest his retreat should be cut off, repaired his ships and returned to Gaul. He had been absent only seventeen days.

ROMAN STANDARD

6. Caesar returned, the following summer, with an army of 32,000 foot and 2,000 horse. He forced **Caswallon** (Latin, Cassivelaunus), a native chief, to submit to him, and to promise a yearly tribute

54 to Rome. The Roman troops were then with- B.C. drawn to Gaul. The chief results of Caesar's visits to Britain were, that they made the island and the civilized world better known to each other, and that their commercial dealings were increased.

7. The Romans left Britain undisturbed for nearly a century after Caesar's departure. They returned in the reign of the Emperor **Claudius**,[2] and then the Roman conquest of

43 Britain really began. They established themselves on A.D. the north bank of the Thames, and penetrated westward as far as to Southampton Water. Britain then became a **Roman province**, ruled by Roman Governors, and often visited by Roman Emperors.

8. In the reign of the Emperor Nero,[3] the Britons revolted,

[1] *Legion.*—In the Roman army a body of soldiers, comprising troops of all arms,—infantry, cavalry, and engineers. It rarely exceeded 6,000 in number, and may be regarded as a complete army in miniature.

[2] *Claudius.*—Emperor, 41–54 A.D.

[3] *Nero.*—Emperor, 54–68 A.D. He is notorious for his profligacy and his cruelty. He assassinated his mother, his wife, and many of his friends and courtiers. He deluged Rome with blood. A terrible persecution of Christians disgraced his reign. He is said to have ordered Rome to be set on fire in several places, and to have mounted

and threatened to drive the Romans out of their island. They were led by **Boadicea,** Queen of the Icenians (in what is now Norfolk). While Suetonius, the Roman general, was in the north with the greater part of his army, they massacred the garrisons of Camulodunum (Colchester) and London. On his return, Suetonius defeated the Britons with terrible slaughter. Boadicea fled, and soon afterwards died. It is said that she poisoned herself, to avoid falling into the hands of the Romans.

59 A.D.

9. To **Julius Agricola,**[1] lieutenant of the Emperor Domitian,[2] belongs the credit of having made Britain a Roman province in more than in name. Agricola was fortunate in having his operations described by his son-in-law Tacitus, the Roman historian. From his writings, we know that Agricola was a wise and humane ruler, as well as a skilful soldier. He penetrated further north than any Roman general had done before him, and he reconciled the natives to the Roman rule by introducing among them the arts of peace and the manners of civilized life.

78 A.D.

10. In the year 80 A.D. he entered **Albin** or **Caledonia** (Scotland), and drove the native Britons northward before him. He advanced with his army as far as to the Tay; but hopeless of being able to hold all the land he had overrun, he resolved to fix on the line of the Forth and Clyde, where the island is narrowest, as the northern boundary of the province. Between the estuaries of these rivers he threw up a **chain of forts** to guard the frontier.

80 A.D.

81 A.D.

11. Agricola subsequently made two incursions into Caledonia. In the latter of these he gained a great victory over a British chief named **Galgacus,** at a place called **Mons Grampius**[3] or Graupius. Agricola caused his

84 A.D.

---

a tower to enjoy the scene. At last he was deposed, and was put to death at his own request by an officer of the court.

[1] *Julius Agricola.*—Born 37, died 93 A.D. He became Consul (chief magistrate) of Rome in 77. He is said to have been poisoned by order of the Emperor Domitian, who was jealous of his popularity.

[2] *Domitian.*—Emperor, 81–96 A.D.

[3] *Mons Grampius.*—Ardoch, in Perthshire, 8 miles north of Dunblane, has generally been named as the scene of this battle, in the belief that it was fought near the Grampian Mountains

THE ROMAN WALL BETWEEN THE FORTH AND THE CLYDE.

THE ROMAN WALL BETWEEN THE TYNE AND THE SOLWAY.

fleet to examine the coasts of Britain. It sailed round the country, and discovered that it was an island. Agricola left Britain in 85 A.D.

12. The continued attacks of the Caledonians during the next thirty-five years had the effect of making the Romans fall back from Agricola's line of forts. When the Emperor **121** **Hadrian**[1] visited Britain in 121, he built an **earthen** A.D. **rampart**, and a **stone wall**, afterwards called the Picts' Wall, between the Tyne and the Solway Firth. In 139, however, the lost ground was recovered. In that year one of Antonine's[2] generals, **Lollius Urbicus** by name, **139** drove the Caledonians once more beyond Agricola's A.D. forts. These forts he connected and strengthened by an **earthen rampart**, called, after the Emperor, Antonine's Wall, and in later times Graham's or Grimes Dike.

13. This, however, did not check the inroads of the North Britons. The Roman governors tried to quiet them with

The Roman camp near Ardoch, too, is the most complete in the country. But a recent editor of Tacitus, the Roman historian, maintains that he wrote, not Mons *Grampius*, but Mons *Graupius*.

[1] *Hadrian*, or Adrian, Emperor, 117–138 A.D.

[2] *Antonine*.—Emperor, 138–161 A.D.

bribes; but that plan failed. At length the Emperor **Severus**[1] was obliged to visit the island in person. So infirm was he with age and disease that he had to be carried on a litter at the head of his army; yet he led it through the mountain fastnesses, and reached the shores of the Moray Firth. In this expedition he lost 50,000 men, and to little purpose; for on his return, he again withdrew the frontier to the Tyne and the Solway, where he repaired Hadrian's **wall**, which therefore often bears his name. The Romans never succeeded in permanently extending their conquests further north.

208 A.D.

14. The Romans divided Britain into six districts:—

I. **Caledonia**, north of Antonine's Wall.
II. **Valentia**, between that wall and the wall of Hadrian and Severus; called Valentia by Theodosius in 368, in honour of the Emperor Valentinian.
III. **Maxima Caesariensis**, between Hadrian's wall and the Humber and the Mersey.
IV. **Flavia Caesariensis**, between the Humber and Mersey and the Thames.
V. **Britannia Secunda**, west of the Dee and the Severn, including Wales.
VI. **Britannia Prima**, south of the Thames and the Bristol Channel.

Only the last four provinces were completely reduced.

15. South Britain continued quiet and prosperous under Roman rule till the later part of the third century, when its eastern shores began to be infested by pirates from the opposite shores of the North Sea. The Romans called them **Saxons**; and in 286 they appointed an officer, with the title, "Count of the Saxon Shore," whose special duty it was to watch for and to repel their attacks.

286 A.D.

16. Among the Romans who settled in Britain there were some Christians. Christianity is said to have been introduced into the island before the end of the first century. During the fierce persecution in the reign of Diocletian,[2] several Britons

[1] *Severus.*—Emperor, 193–211 A.D.

[2] *Diocletian.*—Emperor, 284–305 A.D. The last and fiercest of the persecutions of the early Christians was instigated by him and his colleague, Maximian It lasted from 303 till 305 A.D.—See COLLIER'S *Great Events of History*, pp. 23 24

suffered death. Chief of them was **Alban,**[1] who died at Verulam in 304. The persecution was checked by Constantius Chlorus, who became Emperor in 305, and whose wife, Helena, was a British lady. He died in 306, at York, where his son, **Constantine the Great,** was proclaimed Emperor.

306 A.D.

17. At last the incursions of the Goths and other northern tribes into Italy became so frequent, that the Roman soldiers

[1] *Alban.*—After him the church and town of St. Albans (Hertfordshire) were named. St. Albans occupies the site of the ancient Verulam.

were withdrawn from Britain to guard the heart of the Empire. Levies of the British youth were employed in the Roman service, in Gaul and elsewhere on the Continent. In 410, the Emperor **Honorius**, finding it advisable to contract the limits of the Empire, withdrew the Roman legions and all signs of authority. **410** A.D.

18. The Romans taught the Britons to develop the resources of their country. They opened up the island by making roads paved with stone. These were called *Strata;*[1] whence our word Street. They also laid the foundation of a lucrative trade, Rome and her continental provinces affording a good market for British produce. The chief exports at this time were corn, cheese, lime, chalk, oysters, and pearls. British cattle, horses, and dogs were much prized; and large supplies of tin, lead, iron, with some gold and silver, were drawn from the island. A gold coinage was in use shortly after Caesar's time. Specimens have been found stamped with figures of cattle, like the Latin *pecunia* (from *pecus*, cattle).

19. As the Romans were essentially a military nation, the words which they left behind them in the language relate to their position in the island, as an army in occupation of a conquered land. Their towns were military stations, strongly fortified; and were called in Latin *castra*, or "camps." This word can be recognized in various forms in such names as Chester, Winchester, Leicester, and Doncaster. The Latin word *colonia* can be traced in Lincoln and Colchester; and the city of Bath, although not now called by a Roman name, was a leading Roman watering-place, as recent discoveries of long-buried temples and statues have shown.

QUESTIONS.—1. Who were the earliest known inhabitants of Britain? What kind of people were they? When did the Romans first come in contact with them?

2. How did the natives of the interior live? How were they clad? How did they decorate their bodies? Who were more civilized than these? Why? How did they dress? Who are descendants of these ancient Britons?

3. With what was the country then covered? Where was the ground partially tilled? What are cromlechs and

[1] *Strata.*—There were four chief Roman streets in Britain: (1.) *Watling Street*, from the coast of Kent to Caernarvon, through London; (2.) *Ikenild*, or *Rikenild Street*, from St. David's to Tynemouth, through Derby and York; (3.) *Irmin*, or *Hermin Street*, from St. David's to Southampton; (4.) *The Foss*, from Lincoln to Cornwall. Remains of these streets are still found

stone circles by some supposed to be? And by others?

4. From whom have we derived our knowledge of the Celtic Britons? What was then the position of Rome? How far did her dominions extend?

5. Who had pushed the Roman arms furthest northward? When did he hear of Britain? What led him to visit it? With what army did he do so? How did the natives behave? What was the decisive step? How long did the Romans remain on the island on this occasion?

6. When did Caesar return? With what army? What did he accomplish? What were the chief results of Caesar's visits to Britain?

7. How long was it before the Romans returned? Where did they establish themselves? What did Britain then become?

8. When did the Britons revolt? Who led them? What garrisons did they massacre? How was this cruelty revenged? What was the end of Boadicea?

9. What Roman general really subdued Britain? By whom were his doings described? What kind of man was Agricola? How did he reconcile the natives to Roman rule?

10. When did he enter Caledonia? How far did he penetrate into the country? Where did he fix the frontier of the province? Why? How did he guard it?

11. When did Agricola make his last incursion into Caledonia? Whom did he defeat? Where? What discovery did his fleet make? When did Agricola leave Britain?

12. What was the effect of the continued attacks of the Caledonians? Where did Hadrian build his rampart? When was the lost ground recovered? By whom? What wall did he build?

13. What plan for quieting the Britons was then tried? With what result? Who was then obliged to visit the island? How far northward did he go? What shows that this expedition was of little use?

14. Name the six districts into which the Romans divided Britain. Which of these were never completely reduced?

15. Who began to infest the eastern shores of Britain in the third century? What officer did the Romans therefore appoint?

16. When is Christianity said to have been introduced? In what persecution did Britons suffer? Who was the chief martyr? What Emperor died at York? Who was proclaimed there?

17. What led to the withdrawal of the Roman troops from Britain? In what year did they finally leave the island?

18. How did the Romans open up the island? What were the chief exports from Britain?

19. To what do the words left by the Romans in the island relate? Give examples.

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

FIRST CENTURY B.C.

1. **59 B.C.**—Caius Julius Caesar was made Consul at Rome. The Roman Government was at this time a Republic, in the hands of the Senate, by whom the Consul, or chief magistrate, was elected for the year. But the Consul for the time being was virtually supreme, as he represented the majority of the Senate. The history of Rome at this period is little more than an account of the struggles and intrigues of leading men for supremacy. Caesar's rivals were Pompey and Crassus; but when he became Consul he formed a close alliance with them, and thus was formed what is called the **First Triumvirate**. The Roman Republic was at this period the most powerful State in the world.

2. **58.**—Caesar went to Gaul. The government of the province was conferred on him for five years. Meantime Pompey and Crassus obtained the Consulship. Crassus went to Syria, and was there defeated and murdered; Pompey remained at Rome, and became a kind of Dictator.

3. **49.**—Caesar and Pompey having quarrelled, Caesar "crossed the Rubicon," and marched on Rome. Pompey and his party fled from Italy.

4. **48.**—Pompey was defeated and slain at **Pharsalia**, in Thessaly.

5. **44.**—Caesar was murdered in the Senate House at Rome, on the Ides (the 15th) of March. The belief that Caesar aimed at kingly power led to a plot being formed against his life. Its leaders were Brutus and Cassius. The conspirators failed to rouse the populace, and fled from Rome to the East.

6. **43.**—The **Second Triumvirate**—of Octavian, Antony, and Lepidus—was formed.

7. **42.**—Cassius, defeated by Antony at Philippi, ordered his servant to slay him. Twenty days later, Brutus, defeated at the same place, died in the same way.

8. **36.**—Lepidus was expelled from the Triumvirate; Octavian and Antony became estranged; war ensued. Octavian was annoyed by Antony sacrificing everything to his passion for Cleopatra, Queen of Egypt.

9. **31.**—Antony and Cleopatra were defeated by Octavian at **Actium**. They then returned to Egypt. Octavian followed them. Having heard a rumour of Cleopatra's death, Antony stabbed himself. Cleopatra also killed herself.

10. **27.**—Octavian became Emperor, with the title of **Augustus**. The reign of Augustus was peaceful, except in some of the remote provinces—Spain and Germany.

11. **3.**—**Jesus Christ** was born at Bethlehem, in Judea. The beginning of the Christian era, from which modern history dates, is placed three years after the actual birth of Christ.

QUESTIONS.—1. When did Julius Caesar become Consul? What form of government was there at Rome then? Who elected the Consul? Of what does the history of Rome at this period mainly consist? Who formed the First Triumvirate? What was the position of the Roman Republic?—2. To what province did Caesar go in 58? Who, meantime, became Consuls? Which of them became most powerful?—3. When did Pompey and his friends flee?—4. What was the result of the Battle of Pharsalia?—5. What occurred in 44 B.C.? What led to the plot? Why did the conspirators flee?—6. Who formed the Second Triumvirate?—7. What was the end of Cassius and Brutus?—8. How was the Triumvirate broken up? Why did Octavian and Antony become estranged?—9. The result of the Battle of Actium? What was the end of Antony and Cleopatra?—10. What change in the government took place in 27 B.C.?—11. What great event occurred in 3 B.C.?

FIRST CENTURY A.D.

1. **14 A.D.**— Augustus died at Nola, aged seventy-seven.

2. **29.**—**Jesus Christ** was crucified at Jerusalem.

3. **36.**—Saul of Tarsus (Paul, the apostle) was converted to Christianity near Damascus.

4. **41.**—The Emperor Claudius began to reign (died 54).

5. **48.**—The Apostle **Paul** began his missionary tours. In his second tour (51–54) he preached the gospel—for the first time in Europe—in Macedonia, Athens, and Corinth.

6. **54.**—The Emperor Nero began to reign (died 68).

7. **64.**—A great fire took place at Rome. It lasted six days, and destroyed the greater part of the city. Tradition gives Nero the credit both of raising and of enjoying the fire. He cast the blame of it on the Christians, against whom he set on foot a terrible persecution.

8. **68.**—The Apostle Paul was beheaded at Rome by order of Nero.

9. **69.**—The Emperor Vespasian began to reign (died 79). The great event of his reign was the siege and destruction of Jerusalem in 70 A.D. by his son Titus, who reigned two years (79–81).

10. **81.**—The Emperor Domitian began to reign (died 96). About 95 he began a persecution of the Christians in Rome and Syria. By him the Evangelist **John** was banished to the Isle of Patmos.

QUESTIONS.—1. When did Augustus die?—2. Give the date of the crucifixion.—3. When was Paul converted?—4. Who began to reign in 41 A.D.?—5. When did Paul begin his missionary tours? When was the gospel first preached in Europe? Where?—6. When did Nero begin to reign?—7. How long did the great fire at Rome last? Who has been accused of raising it? Whom did Nero blame for it? What followed?—8. The date of Paul's death? How did he die? Where?—9. What was the chief event of Vespasian's reign?—10. And of Domitian's? Which of the evangelists did he banish?

SECOND CENTURY.

1. **117.**—The Emperor Hadrian (Adrian) began to reign (died 138).

2. **138.**—The Emperor Antonine (Antoninus Pius) began to reign (died 161).

3. **193.**—The Imperial power was put up to auction by the Praetorians at Rome. This shows the low state to which the Empire had been reduced by the luxury and licentiousness of a series of unworthy rulers. With but few exceptions—such as Severus, Aurelian, and Constantine—the Emperors were both effeminate and tyrannical from this time onward to the fall of the Empire.

4. **193.**—The Emperor Severus (Septimius Severus) began to reign (died at York, 211). There was in his reign (202) a terrible persecution of Christians in Africa.

QUESTIONS.—1. When did Hadrian begin to reign?—2. When, Antonine?—3. What shows the low state of the Imperial power in 193? What had re-

duced it to that state? What is the character of the Emperors thenceforward?—4. When did Severus begin to reign? Where and when did he die? Where were Christians persecuted in his time?

THIRD CENTURY.

1. **270.**—The Emperor Aurelian, a peasant's son, began to reign (died 275). Already the hosts of the northern barbarians—Goths, Franks, Vandals—had begun to press on the frontiers of the Empire. Aurelian made peace with the Goths, and broke the power of the Alemanni in North Italy. He then led an army into Syria, and conquered **Zenobia**, Queen of Palmyra, in the heart of the Desert (273).

2. **284.**—The Emperor Diocletian began to reign (abdicated 305). In 286 he shared the Empire with Maximian. Diocletian retained Asia, Egypt, Illyria, and Thrace. He gave Maximian Italy, Gaul, Spain, and North Africa. Each Emperor further assigned half of his share to a Viceroy, or Caesar. This division led to a fierce struggle for the imperial power at Diocletian's death.

QUESTIONS.—1. What Emperor was a peasant's son? When did he begin to reign? By whom were the frontiers of the Empire then threatened? What conquest did Aurelian make in the East?—2. By whom was the Empire divided? With whom did he share it? What countries were assigned to each? How was it subdivided? To what did this lead?

FOURTH CENTURY.

1. **303.**—The last and fiercest of the persecutions of the early Christians began at Nicomedia, in Bithynia, Diocletian's capital. It was commenced by Galerius, the son-in-law of Diocletian; and it raged for nearly eight years over the greater part of the Empire. In 311 Galerius, remorseful at the approach of death, issued an edict allowing Christian worship.

2. **308.**—The Empire was divided among six Emperors. They fought with one another, and the number was gradually reduced, until in 324 **Constantine** was sole Emperor. Born, 272; died, 337.

3. **330.**—Constantine removed the seat of Empire from Rome to Byzantium; which, after him, was called **Constantinople.** He chose Byzantium as his capital, because he believed that from it he could better control both the East and the West than from Rome. The Goths at this time occupied the north-east of Europe. They were divided into the Ostro-goths, or Eastern, and the Visi-goths, or Western Goths—the river Dnieper being the dividing line between them. To the east of the Goths (between the Dnieper and the Volga) were the Alans; to the east of the Alans were the Huns: and each of these nations was pressing its neighbour further westward. The Vandals were established in the north of what is now Germany, between the Elbe and the Vistula. Their neighbours, the Burgundians, occupied Switzerland and the south-east of Gaul. These were the chief bar-

baric nations whose migrations led to the overthrow of the Roman Empire.

4. 332.—The first conflict took place between the Eastern Empire and the **Goths.** The latter were defeated by Constantine.

5. 364.—The Roman Empire was for a time divided into two governments—**Western,** or Roman; and **Eastern,** or Greek (called also Byzantine). Valentinian reigned at Rome, and his brother Valens at Constantinople.

6. 375.—The **Huns** crossed the Volga, and pressed the Alans, and they the Goths, still further westward and southward.

7. 376.—The Goths were allowed to settle in **Moesia,** south of the Danube (modern Bulgaria and Servia). These Moeso-goths, as they were called, were the earliest of the barbarians to embrace Christianity. The famous translation of the Scriptures into Moeso-gothic, by Bishop Ulfilas (died about 388), is the earliest version of the Bible, and indeed the oldest extant writing, in any Germanic tongue. Nearly the whole of the New Testament, and a few fragments of the Old, still survive, and have been of great value to philological science.

8. 378.—The Goths, not satisfied with the footing they had gained in Moesia, advanced southward, and defeated and slew the Emperor Valens at Adrianople.

9. 394.—Theodosius the Great, Emperor of the East, defeated the Emperor of the West, and reünited the two Empires; but on his death, in 395, they were again divided between his two sons.

10. 395.—**Alaric,** Chief of the Visi-goths, overran Greece.

QUESTIONS.—1. When did the last persecution of Christians take place? By whom was it begun? Where? When did it stop?—2. How many Emperors were there in 308? Who were they? How was the number reduced to one? Who was he?—3. Where did he transfer the seat of Empire? Why? What part of Europe did the Goths then occupy? Their two divisions? Who were east of the Goths? And east of the Alans? What part did the Vandals occupy? and the Burgundians?—4. What occurred in 332?—5. What division of the Empire took place in 364?—6. What movement of the barbarians took place in 375?—7. Where were the Goths allowed to settle? What important work is written in the Moeso-gothic language?—8. What victory did the Goths next gain?—9. When were the two Empires reünited?—10. Who was Chief of the Visi-goths? What country did he overrun?

FIFTH CENTURY.

1. 402.—The Eastern Emperor, hoping to strengthen himself by an alliance with the Goths, made Alaric Master-General of Illyricum (on the eastern shore of the Adriatic).

2. 403.—Alaric having invaded Italy, his progress was checked for a time by **Stilicho** (a Vandal by birth), who was in command of the Roman army.

3. 406.—The **Vandals,** under Genseric, entered Gaul, and passed into Spain, where they established themselves in 409. The Vandals crossed

over to Africa in 429, took Carthage in 439, and founded a Vandal kingdom there. About the same time the Alans and the Suevi settled in Spain.

4. 408.—Alaric penetrated to Rome, which capitulated. He again appeared before Rome in 409; and sacked it in 410. In the latter year Alaric died.

5. 412.—The **Visi-goths** entered Spain, and founded a monarchy there in 414, which included the north of Spain and the south-west of Gaul. Its capital was Toulouse. In 472 they drove the Alans into Africa; and they subjugated the Suevi in 568.

QUESTIONS.—1. Which of the Emperors made an alliance with the Goths? Through whom?—2. What country did Alaric invade? Who checked his progress?—3. What tribe passed into Spain? Where did they thence go?—4. Where did Alaric go in 408? When did he sack the city? When did he die?—5. Which of the Goths entered Spain in 412? What did they found there? What did it include? What was its capital? What other Northern tribes in Spain did the Visi-goths subsequently conquer?

THE ENGLISH MIGRATIONS.

BOOK I.

THE OLD ENGLISH KINGDOMS.

CHAPTER I.

THE ENGLISH CONQUEST.

449 to 603 A.D.—154 Years.

1. Helplessness of the Britons—the Picts and the Scots.
2. The Coming of the English.
3. The Three English Tribes.
4. The English States.
5. The Welsh States.

1. The Britons, who had lived in peace under Roman protection, were in a wretched plight when that was withdrawn. **The Picts and the Scots,** breaking through the unguarded walls, pillaged the northern country. The **Vikings**[1] of the North Sea coasts, who had hardly been kept in check by the Roman fleets, descending on the east and the south, sailed up the rivers in their light flat-bottomed skiffs, burning and slaying without mercy. Vortigern, a British prince, is said to have asked the aid of the Vikings against the Picts. The men he invited were Jutes, or people of Jutland, men of great size, with blue eyes, ruddy complexion, and yellow hair; practised in war, using the axe, the sword, the spear, and the mace.

449 A.D. 2. The story of the Teutonic[2] settlement in Britain, though true in some points, rests on uncertain tradition It is, that two Jutish chiefs, named **Hengest** and **Horsa,**[3]

[1] *Vikings.*—That is, "sons of the *vic*" or *wic*, the Norse word for a bay or creek. The word, therefore, means bay-dwellers, or creekers. It should be remembered that the termination is *-ing*, not *-king*.

[2] *Teutonic.*—The Teutonic is one of the seven stocks of the Aryan family of languages. (See Note 1, p. 21.) Of this stock there are two branches, the Germanic and the Scandinavian. The Germanic branch is subdivided into Low-German (English, Friesian, Dutch, Flemish) and High-German (Old, Middle, and Modern). The Scandinavian branch includes Danish, Swedish, and Norwegian, as well as Icelandic and Faroic.

[3] *Hengest and Horsa.*—"Hengest" means *horse*, and "Horsa" means *mare*. As the standard of Kent has been a horse from early times, the story has been supposed to mean that the Jutes were led by their standards.

were hired by Vortigern, and landed at Ebbsfleet, on the coast of Thanet in Kent. After they had repelled the enemies of Vortigern, they turned their arms against himself, seized Kent, and invited their kindred over to share the spoil. For more than a century after this, bands of these Teutonic invaders continued to pour on the southern and eastern shores of Britain, driving the inhabitants west and north before them. They came not only as soldiers to conquer the country, but as colonists to occupy it with their wives and children. The Britons, having for centuries felt the scourge of the Saxons, called all the invaders by that name; but, in truth, they belonged to three tribes—the Jutes, the Saxons, and the Angles or Anglians.

3. The **Jutes**[1] settled in Kent and on the Isle of Wight. The **Saxons**, from Holstein[2] and Friesland,[3] settled chiefly in the south. The **Anglians**, from Schleswig,[4] landed on the east coast and soon spread over the midland and northern districts, occupying most of the land. All these were kinsmen,—brothers, as it were, of the same family. They spoke the same tongue—**English**; they worshipped the same gods (chief of whom was Odin or Woden), and had the same Valhalla[5] for their heaven; and they were ruled by the same laws and customs. When they had made the land fairly their own, they called it after themselves, Englaland, **England**,—"the land of the English."

4. The number of independent States[6] was constantly changing. The following list comprises all those which at any time had a separate standing:—

[1] *Jutes.*—By some the name *Jute* is held to be the same as *Geat;* that is, *Goth.* The name *Jutland* has no reference to land jutting. It means simply the land of the Jutes.

[2] *Holstein.*—A duchy of Germany (formerly of Denmark), bounded by the Baltic, the Eyder, and the Elbe.

[3] *Friesland.*—In Holland; south and east of the Zuider Zee.

[4] *Schleswig.*—North of Holstein. Part of Schleswig (between the Gulf of Flensburg and the Sley) is still called Angeln.

[5] *Valhalla.*—In the Scandinavian mythology, the heaven to which the souls of heroes slain in battle were translated. There they were supposed to drink mead out of the skulls of their enemies.

[6] *Independent States.*—The name "Heptarchy" used to be applied to these States, in the belief that there were seven separate settlements, and seven independent kingdoms. But the number of States exceeded seven, while the number of independent States was generally much smaller. Besides, the word "Heptarchy" means properly government by seven persons, not seven governments. For these reasons the name has been abandoned

I. **Kent**, founded by Jutes under Hengest, 457 A.D.
II. **Sussex** (South Saxons), founded by Ælla, 490 A.D.
III. **Wessex** (West Saxons), founded by Cerdic, 519 A.D.
IV. **Essex** (East Saxons), founded by Ercenwin, 527 A.D.
V. **Middlesex** (Middle Saxons), soon absorbed in Essex.
VI. **Bernicia** (Anglians), founded by Ida, 547 A.D.
VII. **Deira** (Anglians), combined with Bernicia into **Northumbria**, 603 A.D.
VIII. **East Anglia** (Anglians), founded by Uffa, 575 A.D.; divided into North-folk and South-folk.
IX. **Middle Anglia** (Anglians), west of East Anglia.
X. **Southumbria** (Anglians), south of the Humber.
XI. **Mercia** (including Middle Anglia and Southumbria), the midland region, from East Anglia to Wales, and from the Humber to the Thames; founded by Cridda, 582 A.D.

5. The **Welsh**,[1] as the English called the Britons, fought bravely for their country. Their chief leader was **Arthur**, king of the Silures in South Wales; but most of his history is legendary, being derived from poets and chroniclers who, long afterwards,[2] wrote about him and his "Knights of the Round Table." Still, there is no reason to doubt that he gained many victories over the heathen, as the Welsh, who were then Christians, called the English. He gained a great victory over the West Saxons at **Mount Badon** (Badbury, Dorsetshire), which checked the advance of the West Saxons for a whole generation. Shortly after 552, however, the West Saxons crossed the Thames, and advanced northward and westward. The Welsh were now driven into the remote west, and were separated into three provinces,—**West Wales** (Cornwall and Dorset), **North Wales** (Wales proper), and **Cumbria**.

QUESTIONS.—1. In what state were the Britons after the departure of the Romans? Who harassed them in the north? Who, in the east and the south? Whose aid did they ask? Whence did these men come? What was their character?

2. On what does the story of the Teutonic settlement of Britain rest? The names of the Jutish leaders? Where did they land? When? What did they do after they had repelled the Picts? How long, after this, did Teutonic bands continue to arrive? In what capacity did they come? What did the Britons call them? Why? To

[1] *Welsh.*—That is, "foreigners," or "barbarians." The Greeks, in like manner, called all those who spoke languages which they did not understand, "barbarians."

[2] *Long afterwards.*—The legends of Arthur had their origin among the Celts of Brittany, and were first embodied in history by Geoffrey of Monmouth, who died in 1154.

what different tribes did they belong?

3. Where did the Jutes settle? Where did the Saxons? Whence did they come? Whence did the Anglians come? Where did they settle? Which tribe occupied most of the land? What had the three tribes in common? What did they call the land?

4. What is said regarding the number of separate States? Name those which at any time had a separate standing.

5. What did the English call the Britons? Who was their chief leader? Whence is his history derived? Where did he gain a great victory over the English? Into what parts of the country were the Welsh afterwards driven?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

FIFTH CENTURY.

1. **451.**—Attila the Hun (who had overrun Thessaly in 447) invaded Gaul, and was defeated at **Chalons** by the Romans and Theodoric the Visi-goth.

2. **455.**—Genseric the Vandal (see 406) crossed over from Africa, with an army of Vandals and Moors, and sacked Rome.

3. **476.**—Romulus Augustulus, the last Roman Emperor, yielded to **Odoacer**, a Visi-gothic chief, who was then proclaimed King of Italy. The Roman Senate at the same time decreed that the Eastern Emperor, Zeno, should be recognized as head of the Western Empire also. These events mark the extinction of the Western Empire, and the **close of Ancient History**, properly so called.

4. **485.**—Clovis, the chief of the Franks, defeated the Romans, Burgundians, and Visi-goths, at **Soissons** (60 miles north-east of Paris). The name "Clovis" was, in Old German, Chlodwig; which became, in Modern German, Ludwig; in French, Louis; and in English, Lewis.

5. **489.**—**Theodoric**, King of the Ostro-goths, defeated and slew Odoacer, Visi-gothic King of Italy; and founded the Ostro-gothic kingdom in Italy in 493. He had become King of the Ostro-goths in 475, and had been appointed General by the Emperor of the East in 481.

QUESTIONS.—1. When did the Huns invade Gaul? Who was their leader? Where was he defeated? By whom?—2. Who was Genseric? What did he do in 455?—3. When was the Roman Empire overthrown? By whom? What title did Odoacer receive? What decree did the Roman Senate then pass? What do these events mark?—4. The date of the Battle of Soissons? Who won? Who were defeated?—5. By whom was the Visi-gothic kingdom in Italy overthrown? What kingdom was then founded?

SIXTH CENTURY.

1. **510.**—**Clovis**, King of the Franks, removed his capital from Tours to **Paris**. Clovis was the founder of the **Merovingian** dynasty in France; so called from his grandfather, Merwig, or Merovaeus. On the death of Clovis (511), his kingdom was divided among his four sons.

2. **527.**—**Justinian** was crowned Emperor of the East. His name is memorable for the comprehensive system of laws which he promulgated between 528 and 534.

3. **533.**—**Belisarius**, the great general of Justinian, overthrew the Vandal King in the north of Africa. Among the spoils with which he returned were the vessels of the Jewish Temple at Jerusalem carried to Rome by Titus on the taking of Jerusalem (A.D. 70). They had been taken to Carthage by Genseric when he sacked Rome (455). They were now placed in the Christian church at Jerusalem.

4. **536.**—Belisarius invaded Italy, and defeated the Ostro-goths, seiz-

ing Rome, Naples, and Sicily. He repelled a Gothic attack on Rome in 539, and subsequently subdued all Italy. A few years later Belisarius was disgraced for alleged treason against the Emperor. He was again sent to Italy in 544, to resist the Goths. He returned to the East in 548. Slander again overtook him (559), and he is said to have spent the evening of his days blind, poor, and in disgrace.

5. **555.—Narses**, the rival and successor of Belisarius, overthrew the Ostro-gothic kingdom in Italy. Italy became, for a time, a province of the Eastern Empire, governed by Narses as Exarch of Ravenna.

6. **568.—The Longobards**, or **Lombards** (long spears), northern barbarians, joined by the Avars, a tribe of archers, conquered the north of Italy, and for two centuries divided with the Exarchs of Ravenna the sovereignty of the Peninsula.

7. **568.—The foundations of the Venetian Republic** were laid by refugees from cities of Northern Italy which had been sacked by the Lombards. The marshy lagoons at the head of the Adriatic had already been partially colonized in 451, when Attila and his Huns swept over Italy, and destroyed many of the northern cities.

QUESTIONS.—1. Who made Paris the capital of the kingdom of the Franks? When? What dynasty did he found? What change was made at his death?—2. For what is Justinian famous? When was he crowned?—3. Who was his great general? Whom did he conquer in 533? What spoils did he carry with him? Give their history.—4. What further conquest did Belisarius make? Why was he disgraced? Give his subsequent history.—5. By whom was the Ostro-gothic kingdom in Italy overthrown? What did Italy then become? Governed by whom?—6. Who conquered Northern Italy in 568? How long did they and the Exarchs of Ravenna rule Italy?—7. By whom were the foundations of the Venetian Republic laid? When?

CHAPTER II.

CHRISTIANITY IN ENGLAND.

1. Early Apostles of Christianity in Britain.
2. Columba and Augustine.
3. Bertha and Bishop Liudhard.
4. Æthelbert's Letter to Gregory the Great.
5. Gregory and the English Slaves.
6. Arrival of the Missionaries.
7. Their Public Reception.
8. Augustine first Archbishop of Canterbury.
9. Paulinus first Archbishop of York.

1. It was not long until the great spiritual power, which grew on the ruins of Pagan Rome, stretched out its branches toward the British Isles. Pope Celestine sent Palladius in 430 A.D., and St. Patrick two years later, to convert the Scots in Ireland. Ninian and Kentigern laboured during the fifth and sixth centuries in the south-west of Scotland.

430 A.D.

Columba of Donegal, a man of noble birth and remarkable qualities, landed with twelve monks on the Scottish coast in 563, bent on the conversion of the Picts. These, however, can hardly be regarded as Papal missionaries. Settling in Iona, a bare little island off the lower horn of Mull, Columba, the Apostle of Scotland, established there a school of teachers and preachers, who did more true missionary work in Scotland and Northumbria during those dark times than any other class of men.

563 A.D.

2. Columba was a missionary in the true sense. **Augustine** was a shrewd, clever, worldly priest, who came as an ambassador from Rome at the bidding of Gregory the Great, to plant the Papal power on the shores of Britain. It is a mistake to call the landing of Augustine the introduction of Christianity into England. It was only the introduction of the authority of the Church of Rome. Christianity was there before; and its lamp was shining, though with faint and fitful gleams, by many a humble hearth, far away among the mountains of Wales.

3. Æthelbert, an *Aesking*[1] of Kent, had married Bertha (Bercta), daughter of the Frankish King of Paris, who was a professed Christian. Within a church at **Canterbury** the chaplain of this lady, Bishop Liudhard, who had come with her from Gaul, held a regular Christian service, to which curiosity, rather than any deeper motive, attracted many of the Kentish people. Æthelbert went on worshipping his idols, Thor and Odin, for fully thirty years after his marriage; but he must in the meantime have grown familiar with some of the doctrines preached in that little chapel of St. Martin. The ground was therefore somewhat broken for the operations of Augustine and his monks.

4. **A letter from Æthelbert** to Gregory, requesting a mission to Britain, was the first move in this important transaction. The gentle words of Bertha, dropping continually on the Aesking's ear, had wrought out this result; and the Frankish chaplain was in all likelihood the scribe on the occasion.

[1] *Aesking.* — Meaning "son of the ash-tree," was derived from the surname of Eoric of Kent, Hengest's son, who was called Aesc, or "the ash-tree." The termination *-ing* is the Old English suffix meaning "son of."

Gladly Gregory responded to the call; for his active mind had been long ago attracted by the distant isle, in the hope of winning over it a victory more enduring than the triumphs of the Caesars.

5. He had once seen some **English slaves** on view in the Roman market, where their blue eyes, yellow hair, and fair complexion contrasted strongly with the dark locks and swarthy cheeks of Southern captives. On inquiring who and whence they were, his fancy was struck by the scriptural significance of the answers he received. "Angles!" he exclaimed, "not Angles, but angels." "From Deira? Then they shall be *de ira eruti*,—snatched from wrath." "Name of their king Ælla! That is Alleluiah." Some such youths he had collected with the design of training them for a mission to England; but the project failed. The arrival of Æthelbert's letter filled his heart with joy. Selecting for the work Augustine, the prior of the convent to which he had himself belonged, he despatched that priest with forty monks to the distant shores of Kent.

6. These men, frightened by the accounts they received of the islanders, lingered in Gaul, and sent back their leader to beg for a recall. But Gregory had willed it; they must go on. Accompanied, therefore, by Frankish bishops, whose language was not unlike that of the men of Kent, **they crossed the sea**, and wondered to find themselves in a fair and smiling land. A message from Æthelbert reässured them yet more. Bidding them welcome, and thanking them for having come so far to do him good, he said that they might remain as long as they pleased. He then agreed to give the foreign monks an audience in the open air, in sight of the assembled men of Kent. **597** A.D.

7. The meeting must have been an impressive scene. Somewhere in the island of Thanet a double throne was set up in the open air. When the King and Queen had ascended their royal chairs, sounds of sacred music were heard in the distance. The rough Jutes stood around in silent awe. Nearer came the song, and the words of Latin psalms and litanies, chanted by the voices of the monks, grew distinct as **the procession** advanced. Dressed in gorgeous robes of silk and gold, with a picture of the Saviour carried aloft, and a silver crucifix flashing in every

hand, the monks reached the foot of the throne. Augustine spoke through his Frankish friends, setting forth the blessings

AUGUSTINE PREACHING BEFORE ÆTHELBERT.

and hopes that flowed from the faith he professed. The answer of the King was cautious; but the delighted face of Queen Bertha sufficiently rewarded the missionaries for their toils and fears. Before long, Augustine sent a letter to Gregory announcing the baptism of the Kentish King, and the conversion of ten thousand Jutes!

8. Augustine, appointed **Archbishop of Canterbury**, entered with zeal on the duties of his see. His grand object was to bend every man in Britain beneath Roman sway. He held a conference with the simple priests of the Cymri; but they resented the arrogance of the foreign monk, who desired to thrust on them the tenets of a distant city and an unknown man, and refused obedience to the Pope. A second meeting had the same result. Repelled by Augustine's crafty proposals, but undaunted by his violent threats, they broke off the conference, and went back to their mountains.

9. About twenty years after the arrival of Augustine, Æthel-

burh, the daughter of Æthelbert and Bertha, became the wife of King Edwin (Eadwine) of Deira. She was accompanied to Bamborough Castle by **Paulinus**, a Christian bishop, through whose preaching Edwin and the Northumbrians were converted to Christianity. In 627, Paulinus became first Archbishop of York. Not long afterwards, **Aidan** went from Iona to Holy Isle, and founded the See of Lindisfarne. There were thus introduced into Northumbria two ecclesiastical authorities—that of the Church of Iona, and that of the Church of Rome. There naturally arose a dispute between them. At the Synod of Whitby in 664, it was decided that Northumbria should owe allegiance to the Bishop of Rome alone. Thereupon the monks of Lindisfarne returned to Iona.

664 A.D.

QUESTIONS. —1. Whom did Pope Celestine send to convert the Scots in Ireland? Where did Ninian and Kentigern labour? When did Columba land in Scotland? Where did he settle?

2. What difference in character was there between Columba and Augustine? Why is it a mistake to call the landing of Augustine the introduction of Christianity into England?

3. Who first preached Christianity in Kent? In what capacity had he gone to Kent?

4. What step did Æthelbert take? Through whose influence had this result been reached?

5. What had attracted Gregory's attention to the English? Narrate the incident. What did Gregory do on receiving Æthelbert's letter?

6. What delayed the missionaries in Gaul? Who accompanied them to Kent? What message did Æthelbert send them?

7. Describe the reception of the monks by the King. What was Augustine soon able to announce to Gregory?

8. To what office was Augustine appointed? What was his grand aim? What was the result of his conferences with the Cymri?

9. How was Christianity introduced into Northumbria? Who was the first Archbishop of York? Who founded the See of Lindisfarne? What dispute naturally arose? How was it settled? When? Where?

CHAPTER III.

THE RIVAL KINGDOMS.

1. Ascendency of Northumbria.
2. Edwin Overlord.
3. Rise of Mercia.
4. Decline of Northumbria.
5. Offa Overlord.
6. Egbert Overlord.

1. WHEN the English States were not fighting with the Welsh, they were generally engaged in struggling for the mastery over one another. In this struggle the smaller and weaker States had naturally to succumb to the more powerful,

and in course of time the number of independent States came to be greatly reduced. **Northumbria** was the first to
603 gain the ascendency. King Æthelfrith of Bernicia
A.D. seized Deira,[1] drove the North Britons beyond the Forth, and ruled from the Forth to the Wash. Four years later he forced many of the Mercians, including those of Southumbria and Middle Anglia, to submit to him. Kent and Northumbria thus came to be rivals for power in the east of England, as Kent and Wessex were in the south.

2. King Æthelfrith was slain in 617, and was succeeded by **Edwin** (Eadwine) of Deira, whom he had dispossessed in 603. Æthelbert had died a year before, and the power of Kent had begun to decline in the hands of his successor. Edwin had little trouble, therefore, in detaching East Anglia and Essex from Kent, and including them in his own overlordship. He secured the friendship of Kent by marrying Æthelburh, the daughter of Æthelbert. Wessex alone remained powerful enough to dispute his supremacy. In 626 he subdued Wessex, and was acknowledged as **Overlord of all England.** To protect his northern frontier from the attacks of the Britons, he built a castle on a steep rock near the Forth. After its founder it was called Eadwinesburh,—**Edinburgh.**

3. **Penda,** King of Mercia,[2] made Edwin's conversion to Christianity a cause of quarrel with him. Penda made himself the champion of the old heathen faith, hoping to recover the independence of his kingdom thereby. He allied himself with the Welsh of Strathclyde, who had for six years been in arms against Edwin. They marched into Northumbria, and
633 in a great battle at **Hatfield,**[3] Edwin was slain. There-
A.D. after confusion prevailed in Northumbria for a year or two, until Oswald, Edwin's nephew, came to the throne. In 635, he utterly crushed the Welsh of Strathclyde.[4]

4. Meantime the power of Mercia had been growing rapidly

---

[1] *Seized Deira.*—Thus Bernicia and Deira were united, and Northumbria was formed.

[2] *Mercia.*—That is, "the march-land," or border-land, because it was originally the frontier land between the English and the Welsh.

[3] *Hatfield.*—Four miles north-east of Doncaster.

[4] *Strathclyde.*—This district originally extended from the middle of England to the Firth of Clyde, including the western coasts both of England and of Scotland.

under Penda. He made himself master of all England from the Humber to the Thames. In 642, Oswald tried to rescue East Anglia from him, but was slain in battle. 642 A.D. For some years thereafter Penda was the most powerful King in England; but Northumbria revived under Oswi, who slew Penda, and Mercia once more submitted to Northumbria. 655 A.D. The struggle was resumed by Wulfere, who greatly extended Mercia, driving the West Saxons south of the Thames, and advancing even to London. But **Egfrith** (Ecgfrith) of Northumbria defeated Wulfere in 683. Two years later, Egfrith was slain in battle with the Picts at **Nectansmere** in the east of Scotland, and then the supremacy of Northumbria came to an end; so entirely did the position of each State depend on the personal character and prowess of its ruler. 685 A.D.

5. The struggle for supremacy was then continued between Mercia and Wessex. For a time Wessex was successful under Ine, who made a famous code of laws. But a change came when Offa, the greatest of the Mercian Kings, got the throne in 758. Offa drove back the Welsh, and built a rampart called **Offa's Dike**, from the mouth of the Dee to that of the Wye. He then annexed East Anglia, and was acknowledged as Overlord by Kent. In 784, he gained supremacy over Northumbria and Wessex by keeping a son-in-law on the throne of each. Offa was practically **Overlord of all England** till his death in 794. 784 A.D.

6. The rivals of Offa's sons-in-law took refuge at the court of **Charles the Great** (Charlemagne), King of the Franks, who espoused their cause. On the death of the King of Wessex (800), Charles sent over **Egbert** (Ecgberht), the exiled Prince, to claim the throne; and the West Saxons took him for their King. A few years later the exiled Prince of Northumbria was restored, and Mercia was thus weakened in the north. In 823, Egbert defeated the Mercians at **Ellandune** in Wiltshire. Four years later, both Mercia and Northumbria submitted to Wessex, and Egbert became **Overlord of all England.** In his charters he sometimes called himself *Rex Anglorum*,—"King of the English." 800 A.D. 827 A.D.

QUESTIONS.—1. What struggle went on among the English States? What was thus reduced? Which State first gained the ascendency? What King first extended its bounds? What States were rivals for power in the east of England? With what State had Kent to compete in the south?

2. Who succeeded Æthelfrith? What States did he detach from Kent? How did he secure the friendship of Kent? What did he become in 626? How did he protect his northern frontier?

3. Who then made war on Edwin? On what ground? With whom did he ally himself? What battle was fought? Who was slain? What followed in Northumbria? Who restored order? Whom did he crush?

4. Whose power had meantime been growing? Who slew Penda? In what direction did Wulfere extend Mercia? What put an end to the supremacy of Northumbria?

5. What States then strove for the mastery? Which succeeded at first? Who was the greatest of the Mercian Kings? How did he protect his frontier from the Welsh? How did he gain supremacy over Northumbria and Wessex? What did he then become? How long did he remain so?

6. How were Wessex and Northumbria detached from Mercia? Where did Egbert defeat the Mercians? When? When did Egbert become Overlord of all England? What is he called in some of his charters?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

SEVENTH CENTURY.

1. **613.**—Clotaire II. of France appointed the **Mayors of the Palace** for life. The Mayors of the Palace were the Prime Ministers of the King, to whom the chief executive power was intrusted. In the course of time they supplanted the Kings, and founded a new dynasty. (See 690, and 752.)

2. **622.**—The **Hegira,** or flight of Mohammed from Mecca to Medina, took place, which marks the beginning of the era of Mohammedanism. Mohammed had proclaimed his mission some years previously. At last the rage of his enemies grew so great that he only saved his life by a midnight flight.

3. **637.**—Omar, the father-in-law and successor of Mohammed (hence called *Kaliph*—that is, "successor"), took Jerusalem, which remained in the hands of the Saracens for upwards of four hundred years. (See 1065.) The Saracens were Arabs and Mohammedans. The word *Saracens* means "Orientals," or Eastern people. Their conquest of Jerusalem was commemorated by the building of the Mosque of Omar, a Mohammedan church built on the site of the Jewish Temple.

4. **640.**—The Saracens under Amrou took Alexandria, and burned the library there. They then conquered Egypt.

5. **655.**—The Saracens conquered Persia, which was gradually converted to Mohammedanism.

6. **673.**—The Saracens, who had begun the Siege of Constantinople in 668, were repelled, their fleet having been destroyed by Greek fire.

7. **690.**—**Pepin** (Mayor of the Palace under Theodoric III.) made the mayoralty hereditary in his family.

8. 698.—The Saracens, having previously conquered Barbary, destroyed Carthage. They overthrew the Moors in 707.

QUESTIONS.—1. Who were the Mayors of the Palace? By whom were they appointed for life? What did they in course of time do?—2. What event marks the beginning of the Mohammedan era? When did it take place?—3. What is the meaning of *Kaliph?* Who was the first Kaliph? When did he take Jerusalem? How long did the Saracens retain it? What does the name *Saracens* mean? How was the Saracen conquest of Jerusalem commemorated?—4. When did the Saracens take Alexandria? What did they destroy there? What did they then conquer?—5. Where did they go in 655?—6. When did they begin the Siege of Constantinople? When were they repelled? How?—7. Who made the mayoralty of the palace hereditary in his family?—8. By what was the Saracen conquest of Barbary followed? What nation did the Saracens overthrow there?

EIGHTH CENTURY.

1. 711.—The Saracens, under **Tarik**, the general of Musa, crossing from Africa, penetrated into Spain, and overthrew the Visi-gothic kingdom there. The conquest of Spain was completed by Musa in person. Roderic, the King of the Visi-goths, was defeated in the Battle of Xeres, and was afterwards drowned in the Guadalquivir. The Saracens conquered Portugal in 713. From Tarik, Gibraltar (the "Rock of Tarik") took its name. After 717, Spain was ruled by Emirs appointed by the Kaliphs of Damascus, till the independent Kaliphate of Cordova was established in 755.

2. 716.—The Saracens a second time besieged Constantinople. They were finally defeated by the Emperor Zeno, who succeeded in 718; and thus the Eastern Empire was saved.

3. 726.—The **Iconoclasts**, or "image-breakers," religious enthusiasts, destroyed the images in the churches of Constantinople. They were encouraged by the Emperor Leo and his son Constantine. The Pope excommunicated Leo; and this led to the division of the Church into the Eastern or Greek Church and the Western or Roman Church. **The Greek Church** is at the present time the Established Church of Russia, Greece, and the Christians in Turkey.

4. 732.—The Saracens invaded France; but Charles Martel ("the Hammer"), son of Pepin, who became Mayor in 719, defeated them in the Battle of **Tours** (65 miles south-west of Orleans), and drove them across the Ebro.

5. 752.—Mayor Pepin the Short, son of Charles Martel, became King, and founded the **Carlovingian** line in France.

6. 754.—Pepin invaded Italy, and was acknowledged as King of the Franks by the Pope, upon whom he bestowed the Exarchate of Ravenna (see 555) and Pentapolis, which he had taken from the King of Lombardy. The Pope had obtained the assistance of the King of Lombardy against the Iconoclasts (726), who had spread to Italy. The Lombards expelled the Exarch of Ravenna, but kept possession of

Central Italy. Pepin then recovered Central Italy from the Lombards, and gave it to the Pope, who had appealed to him for aid. This was the beginning of the **temporal power of the Popes**,—a power which, though often disputed, was not finally extinguished till Rome was made the capital of the Kingdom of Italy in 1870.

7. **755.**—Abd-al-Rahman, the Kaliph of Damascus, fled to Spain and founded the **Kaliphate of Cordova** as an independent power.

8. **774.**—**Charlemagne**, who became sole ruler of the Franks in 771, defeated the King of Lombardy, and extinguished the Lombard kingdom in Italy.

9. **778.**—Charlemagne made a successful incursion into Spain, and annexed to his empire all Spain north of the Ebro,—a district known as the *Spanish Mark* (Margraviate). He had been asked by a rebel Saracen for aid against the Kaliph of Cordova. As he was returning to France, his rear-guard was cut off at Roncesvalles by the Basques, when his nephew, Count Rolando, a hero of romance, was slain.

10. **786.**—**Haroun-al-Raschid** ("Aaron the Just," whose exploits are described in the "Arabian Nights"), the greatest of the Abbaside Kaliphs, began to reign at Bagdad. (Died in 808.) He intrusted his government to his Vizier, Yahya the Barmecide; but growing jealous of his power, he in 803 caused him and the whole of the Barmecides to be executed.

11. **800.**—Charlemagne was crowned **Emperor of the West** at Rome by Pope Leo III., who threw off the authority of the Eastern Empire, because it was held by a woman, the Empress Irene. This was the beginning of what is known in history as the **Holy Roman Empire**, which subsisted as the German Empire till it was overthrown at the beginning of the present century by Napoleon I. In 1804 the Emperor Francis II. assumed the title of Emperor of Austria, which his successor still bears.

12. **804.**—Charlemagne finally subdued the Saxons, after a war of thirty years' duration. Many thousands of them were drafted out of their own country to Flanders, and the northern districts of France.

QUESTIONS.—1. What Saracen general penetrated into Spain? What kingdom did he overthrow there? Who completed the conquest of Spain? By whom was Spain ruled, after 717? How long did that system last?—2. When did the Saracens renew the Siege of Constantinople? What was the result?—3. What led to the division of the Church into Eastern and Western?—4. When did the Saracens invade France? Who defeated them? In what battle?—5. By whom was the Carlovingian line in France founded? When?—6. What was the origin of the temporal power of the Popes? When did that power come to an end?—7. By whom was the Kaliphate of Cordova founded? When?—8. By whom was the Lombard power in Italy extinguished? When did he become sole ruler of the Franks?—9. What was the Spanish Mark? When was it annexed to France? What led to this conquest? What occurred as Charlemagne's army was returning to France?—10. Whose exploits are described in the "Arabian Nights"? When did he

begin to reign? Where?—11. What was the beginning of the Holy Roman Empire? By whom was it overthrown?—12. With whom did Charlemagne wage war for thirty years? Who was victorious?

CHAPTER IV.

THE STRUGGLE WITH THE DANES.

1. Arrival of the Danes.
2. Breaking up of Egbert's Kingdom.
3. The Danes Conquer East Anglia.
4. Accession of Alfred the Great.
5. The Danes Take Mercia and Northumbria.
6. The Danes Return to Wessex.
7. Alfred in Hiding.
8. The Battle of Edington.
9. The Peace of Wedmore.
10. Alfred's Work during the Peace.
11. Alfred's Laws.
12. Defence of the Kingdom.
13. Hasting's Invasion.

1. **The Danes** or Norsemen began to be troublesome in Egbert's time. They were Scandinavians, from Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, and therefore men of kindred race with the English. As early as 787 they had begun to ravage the north-eastern coast; but now they attacked the south, and tried to force their way into the heart of the country. They allied themselves with the Welsh of Cornwall, and troubled Wessex greatly on the west. Egbert marched against them in 835, and inflicted on them a great defeat at **Hengest's-Down** (Hengestesdun) in Cornwall. This, however, was only a temporary check.

2. Egbert died in 836, and was succeeded by Æthelwulf, his son. During his reign, and the reigns of three of his sons, the struggle with the Danes continued. In the time of Æthelred I., his third son (866–871), England was dismembered again, and the overlordship of Wessex came to an end as completely as those of Northumbria and Mercia had done. At Æthelred's death it seemed doubtful whether even Wessex would remain in the hands of the English.

3. Great numbers of Danes landed in East Anglia in 866. In the following year they took York; and Northumbria at once submitted to them. The next year they conquered East Anglia. They bound **Edmund**[1] (Eadmund), the king, to a tree, and shot him to death with arrows. **Guthrum**, the Danish leader, then assumed 868 A.D.

[1] *Edmund.*—An abbey was built over his tomb; and the town which gathered around it was called St. Edmundsbury; now Bury-St.-Edmunds, in Suffolk.

the crown of East Anglia, and many Danes settled there. Mercia was next invaded, and in 870 its English King became tributary to the Dane.

4. Thus, when **Alfred** succeeded his brother Æthelred in 871, Wessex had lost Northumbria, East Anglia, and Mercia; and the renewal of the Danish attack on Wessex itself was not likely to be long delayed. Whether England should continue to be ruled by Englishmen, depended mainly on the conduct of Wessex; and the resistance of Wessex depended on the skill and spirit of its young King. Alfred was now in his twenty-second year, and had previously been more remarkable for his love of study than for his warlike spirit. It is, however, a proof of the confidence the men of Wessex had in him, that in their time of peril they pressed the crown on him, to the exclusion of his infant nephew, Æthelwald.

871 A.D.

5. At first King Alfred, in his zeal for the reform of abuses, excited so much discontent among his subjects, that they were unwilling to face the Danes for a Monarch of such severity. But the ravages of the invaders grew more formidable every day. A battle was fought at **Wilton** in Wiltshire, in which Alfred was defeated. He then entered into negotiations with the Danes, who withdrew from Wessex on receiving a large sum. Their ravages were then carried into Mercia and Northumbria, where they burned and butchered without mercy. In 874, the English King of Mercia fled to Rome; and the Danes gave the throne to one of his nobles, on condition that he should pay tribute to them. In Northumbria they settled on the land, and divided it among themselves, as the English had done four centuries before.

871 A.D.

874 A.D.

6. Alfred fitted out **a fleet** to guard his coast. This fleet did good service, gaining several victories over the Danes, and preventing them from landing. But in 876 they returned in force, and having secured the Welsh as allies, they seized **Exeter**. Alfred besieged them there the following spring, and forced them to surrender. They promised to leave Wessex, and retired into Mercia. They returned suddenly in the winter of 878, led by Guthrum, the

876 A.D.

East-Anglian King. Having taken post at Gloucester, Guthrum made a night-march on Chippenham,[1] a royal villa on the Avon, where Alfred was then re- 878 siding. The King fled in disguise, and with a few fol- A.D. lowers sought refuge in Somerset.

7. The chroniclers of his life tell a story of his retirement, which has formed a subject for picture and for poem. The wife of his humble host, a neat-herd, set him to watch cakes; but, in his absence of mind, he let them burn. She scolded him soundly—some say, struck him—saying that, lazy as he was in turning them, he would be active enough in eating them. His hiding-place was **Athelney,**[2] a marshy island formed by the meeting of the rivers Parret and Tone; and here he remained some months, visited at times by his nobles, who were gradually and secretly gathering strength for a fierce struggle.

8. Hearing that the Danes had been surprised and beaten by the Earl of Devon, Alfred resolved to strike the blow at once. He is said to have visited the Danish camp in the disguise of a harper. He saw the carelessness of the Danes, heard their plans discussed, and then, stealing from the camp, called his friends together in Selwood Forest. The summons was joyfully received. The English and the Danes met at 878 the foot of **Edington** (Ethandune), a hill in Wiltshire, A.D. and the victory was Alfred's. He laid siege to the Danish camp, and in fourteen days forced Guthrum to capitulate.

9. Then followed the **Peace of Wedmore** (Somersetshire). Guthrum and many of his followers agreed to become Christians, and the chief was baptized by the name Æthelstan. The Danes solemnly vowed to leave Wessex; and they were allowed to hold Essex, East Anglia, and the north-east of Mercia, as vassals of Wessex. The rest of Mercia was annexed to Wessex, and was governed for Alfred by Æthelred, to whom Alfred gave his daughter Æthelfled (Æthelflaed) in marriage. England was thus divided into two parts; the one Danish, the other English. The dividing line may be drawn roughly from the mouth of the Lea through Bedford to Shrewsbury. North-east

[1] *Chippenham.*—Twelve miles north-east of Bath.

[2] *Athelney.*—That is, *Æthelinga-igge,* or the "Isle of Nobles."

of that line was the **Danelagh,** or country of the Dane-folk. The Mercian part of the Danelagh came afterwards to be called **The Five Boroughs,** as the five chief towns in it—Derby, Lincoln, Leicester, Stamford, and Nottingham—formed a kind of league for its defence.

10. The country now enjoyed **a long peace.** The Danes did not attempt to drive the English out of the country, as the English had driven out the Welsh. The Danes and the English were people of the same race, and were so closely allied in speech that they had no difficulty in living together, and by-and-by they became one people. Alfred devoted the years of peace to those measures for the improvement of his people which form his best title to the name Great. He encouraged learning, both by his example and by his laws. His court was the home of many distinguished scholars; and we owe to the King himself several works, among which are translations of *Æsop's Fables* and of *Bede's History of the English Church.* He founded schools, and passed a law enforcing on the nobles the education of their children.

11. Alfred[1] also framed a **code of laws,** in which the chief enactments of Æthelbert and Ine had place; and these he executed with such stern impartiality that crime became rare. We can trace to his wisdom the practical application of many principles of modern British law. He enacted that it was a capital offence to plot against the King. The division of the land into **counties, hundreds,** and **tithings** or tenths, which had existed before, but which he remodelled and improved, enabled him to hold all parts of the country under strict control; and the respect for his name was so great, that it became a common saying, that golden ornaments might be hung up by the roadside, and no robber would dare to touch them.

12. Alfred was no less mindful of the **defence** of his kingdom. He built strong castles, both inland and on the shore, where an enemy could be best withstood. He organized a militia system, according to which all men capable of bearing arms were divided into three sets. One body occupied the towns as

[1] *Alfred.* — Many customs and institutions whose origin is obscure have usually been assigned to Alfred, as a ready and likely way of accounting for their existence; for example, trial by jury, and the University of Oxford.

garrisons, while the other two were by turns engaged in military service and in the cultivation of the land.

13. So, in 892, when there was a fresh invasion by Danes, who crossed from France, led by Hasting, Alfred was well prepared to meet them. Hasting landed in Kent, crossed into Essex, and obtained aid from the Danes of East Anglia. They marched right across Mercia into Wales, expecting, no doubt, to get the assistance of the Welsh; but Æthelred, Alfred's son-in-law, followed them, and defeated them with great slaughter at **Buttington** (Montgomeryshire) in 894. Driven from their stronghold at Chester the following year, the Danes returned to Essex. Alfred and Æthelred marched against them. Their skiffs crowded the Lea; but Alfred, by digging a trench beside the river, shallowed the stream, and caused the Danish vessels to run aground, when they fell an easy prey to his troops. This drove the pirates back to France. The rest of Alfred's reign was peace. He died in 901, aged fifty-two, and was succeeded by his son Edward, surnamed "The Elder."

892 A.D.

895 A.D.

QUESTIONS.—1. Who began to be troublesome in Egbert's time? Who were the Danes? When had they begun to attack England? Where did they attack it now? With whom did they ally themselves? Where did Egbert defeat them? When?

2. Who succeeded Egbert? What occurred in Æthelred's time? In what position was Wessex at his death?

3. When did the Danes conquer East Anglia? How did they treat the King? Who assumed the crown? What kingdom was next attacked?

4. When did Alfred succeed? In what position was Wessex then? What was at stake? On what did the issue depend? For what had Alfred hitherto been remarkable?

5. What at first made Alfred's people discontented? What was the result of the Battle of Wilton? What induced the Danes to withdraw from Wessex? Where did they then carry their ravages? What influence did they gain in Mercia? How did they deal with Northumbria?

6. Of what use was Alfred's fleet? What place did the Danes seize in 876? Where did they go, on surrendering? What did they do in the winter of 878? What was Alfred forced to do?

7. What story is told of him in his retirement? Where was his hiding-place? How long did he remain there? For what were his nobles secretly preparing?

8. What induced Alfred to resolve on an immediate stroke? How is he said to have gained knowledge of the Danish plans and position? Where did he summon his friends? What battle was fought? Who gained the victory?

9. What peace followed? To what did the Danes agree? What were they allowed to hold? Who held the rest of Mercia? What line separated the Danish portion of England from the English portion? What was the Danish portion called? What was the Mercian part of it called?

10. What difference was there between the Danish settlement and the English one? Why was this? To what did Alfred devote the years of peace? What literary works did he himself

produce? How did he encourage education?

11. How did he diminish crime? What enabled him to control all parts of the country? What saying shows the respect for his name?

12. How did he provide for the defence of his kingdom?

13. When was there a fresh invasion of Danes? Who was their leader? Who aided him? Where did they march? Who followed them? Where did he defeat them? Where did the Danes go when driven from Chester? How were they finally defeated? When did Alfred die?

CHAPTER V.

THE DANISH CONQUEST.

1. The Norsemen Settle in France.
2. Edward Overlord of all Britain.
3. Battle of Brunanburh.
4. Rise of Dunstan.
5. Dunstan's Policy.
6. The Witan at Calne.
7. Æthelred the Unready.
8. The Massacre of the Danes.
9. Return of Canute.
10. A Dane King of England.

1. While Edward was King, a host of Norsemen, led by **Rolf the Ganger,**[1] settled in the country of the Franks. Charles the Simple, King of the West Franks, in 912, gave Rolf a piece of land at the mouth of the Seine for himself and his followers, on condition that the Norsemen should become Christians and cease ravaging the Frankish coasts. Rolf and his son added greatly to their territory, which came to be called **Normandy**, or "the land of the Norsemen." From Rolf and his followers were descended William, Duke of Normandy, and the Normans who conquered England in 1066. But long before that time the Normans had become Frenchmen; for it is remarkable that the Teutonic settlers in France, unlike the Teutonic settlers in Britain, gave up their own speech for that of the natives.

912 A.D.

2. After the death of Æthelred of Mercia, in 911, his widow **Æthelfled** ruled with great vigour. She made a determined effort to recover the Five Boroughs from the Danes; and after five years' fighting she had captured Derby and Leicester, when she died, 918. Her brother **Edward** took the government of Mercia into his own hands, and continued the struggle with the Danes. In this he was

918 A.D.

[1] *The Ganger.*—That is, "the Goer." Rolf was so called, it is said, because he was so long-legged that none of the small horses of the North could carry him, and he had therefore to perform his expeditions on foot.

so successful, that in 924 he was acknowledged as Overlord by all England, and even by the Scots and by the Welsh of Strathclyde and Wales. Thus Edward was not only Overlord of the English—as Edwin and Offa and Egbert had been—but **Overlord of all Britain.** He was the first to assume the title of **King of England;** but shortly after achieving this greatness, he died, in 925. **924** A.D.

3. **Æthelstan,** Edward's son, was barely seated on the throne when the Northumbrians and the North Welsh revolted. Both revolts were soon quelled; but a more formidable rising occurred in 937, when the Scots, the North Welsh, and the English Danes, joined Anlaf of Denmark, who appeared with a great fleet in the Humber. Æthelstan marched against the allies, and defeated them in a great battle at **Brunanburh.**[1] Edmund I., his half-brother and successor, secured the friendship of the Scots by granting them Strathclyde[2] or Cumbria. He was stabbed at the supper-table by a robber whom he had banished six years before. **937** A.D.

4. **Edred,** Edmund's brother, was chosen to succeed him, because Edmund's sons, Edwy and Edgar, were considered too young[3] to reign. On Edred's death, however, **Edwy,** his nephew, succeeded him, 955. Edwy quarrelled with **Dunstan,** a powerful churchman whom Edmund had made Abbot of Glastonbury, and banished him from his court and kingdom. Mercia and Northumbria again revolted, and made **Edgar,** the King's brother, their King. Dunstan was recalled to Mercia by Edgar, who became King of Wessex, **955** A.D.

---

[1] *Brunanburh.*—Said to have been in Lincolnshire; but there is no certainty as to the locality. As, however, the invaders entered the country by the Humber, and as they would naturally march southwards, the battle is most likely to have been fought in Lincolnshire.

[2] *Strathclyde.*—As the English States spread over the country, the limits of this district were gradually narrowed. In the seventh century it extended from the upper part of the Great Ouse (modern Northamptonshire) to the north of the Clyde in Scotland. In the tenth century its southern boundary was Morecambe Bay and the river Lune. The district south of the Solway was called Cumbria, or Cumberland; that north of it was called Reged. In the eleventh century the name Cumberland was applied to the whole of Strathclyde.

[3] *Too young.*—At this time the law of primogeniture (by which the eldest born is entitled to succeed) was not always followed. Practically, the Witan (*Witena-gemôt,* or "council of wise men") elected from the Royal Family the Prince most fit to rule.

also, on his brother's death. In a few years Dunstan was made Archbishop of Canterbury and Prime Minister.

5. In order to break the power of Northumbria, Edgar, by Dunstan's advice, divided it into three portions. **Lothian,** between the Forth and the Tweed, was given to the King of Scots, and formed the nucleus of the Anglo-Scottish kingdom. The remainder was divided into two Earldoms,—the one from the Tweed to the Tees (Northumbria), the other from the Tees to the Humber (Deira or Yorkshire). Dunstan strove to foster strict monasticism in England, and to make the Church supreme in the government of the country. His policy alienated the secular clergy as well as the freemen.

6. The contest between Dunstan and the national clergy came to a crisis in 978, during the reign of **Æthelred II.** The latter claimed the right to marry, which the Church of Rome refused to permit. The Witan met at **Calne** in Wiltshire to discuss the disputed points; and while Dunstan was appealing to Heaven for vengeance against his opponents, who were all collected at one end of the room, the joists gave way beneath the national party, and the prelate's enemies were hurled to the earth in a heap of dead and wounded. It has been said that he had caused the beams to be half sawn through, previous to the assembling of the Witan. Famine and plague cast a gloom over the land, which grew deeper two years later, when the Danes renewed their ravages. At the same time, Mercia and Northumbria, where the Danish element in the population was large, again broke with Wessex.

978 A.D.

7. Æthelred, who was surnamed "the Unready,"—that is, the Rede-less, or unwise,—tried to get rid of the Danes by buying them off. For this purpose he levied a tax called *Dane-geld*, amounting to twelve pence in the year upon each hide of land for all classes except the clergy; but this foolish policy had no other effect than to bring the pirates back to the English shores. They returned in 997 in greater numbers than ever, and harassed Wessex for five years. They were again bought off, and each time this was repeated their demands increased. Many of them did not actually go away, but settled in Wessex as peaceful citizens.

8. Æthelred, in his folly, devised the mad scheme of a general massacre of the Danes in Wessex. The bloody deed was perpetrated ruthlessly on the festival of **St. Brice.** Nov. 13, 1002 A.D. Burning with rage, Sweyn (Swegen), King of Denmark, whose sister Gunhild was among the slain, burst upon the coasts; and, returning again and again, during four years, took a terrible revenge. He returned in 1013, determined to conquer England. Mercia and Northumbria joined him, and then Wessex was reduced to the direst straits. At last Oxford and Winchester 1013 A.D. fell before the invaders. **Sweyn** was proclaimed King at Bath, and soon after at London. Æthelred fled to the Isle of Wight, and thence to Normandy, the native place of Emma, his second wife. Sweyn died three weeks afterwards, at Gainsborough in Lincolnshire, leaving his conquests to his son **Canute**[1] (Cnut). But the English having recalled Æthelred, supported him so vigorously that Canute was forced in turn to abandon the island.

9. Æthelred, now triumphant, provoked renewed incursions by repeated murders of his Danish subjects; and his untiring foe, Canute, once more landed in England. 1016 A.D. The Dane was pushing towards the capital, leaving a track of blood and ashes behind him, when Æthelred died. He was succeeded by Edmund, his eldest son.

10. **Edmund II.**, surnamed "Ironside," struggled bravely for seven months to secure the throne of his father, during which London was assaulted twice, without success, by the Danes under Canute. But at last, after a meeting at Olney, an island in the Severn,—where, some writers say, a duel was fought between the rivals,—they agreed to a division of the 1017 A.D. kingdom; Edmund holding the counties south, the Dane those north of the Thames. The Dane-geld was to be levied in both districts alike, but was to be applied to the support of the Danish fleet. A month after this agreement Edmund died, and Canute was acknowledged as King from one end of England to the other.

QUESTIONS.—1. Where did the Norsemen settle during Edward's reign? | Who was their leader? What was their settlement by-and-by called? Who

[1] *Canute.*—Pronounce *Că-noot*.

were the descendants of these Norsemen? Wherein did they differ from the Teutonic settlers in Britain?

2. Who ruled Mercia after Æthelred's death? What towns did she capture from the Danes? Who governed Mercia after her death? What success had he against the Danes? Of what was he Overlord? What title was he the first to assume? When did he die?

3. Who succeeded? What great victory did he gain? How did Edmund secure the friendship of the Scots?

4. Who succeeded Edmund? Why were Edmund's sons passed over? What was practically the law of succession at that time? Who succeeded Edred? With whom did he quarrel? What led to Dunstan's return to England? To what offices was he appointed in 959?

5. How was the power of Northumbria broken? How did Dunstan offend the secular clergy?

6. When did the contest between Dunstan and the national clergy come to a crisis? What occurred at Calne? When did Mercia and Northumbria again break with Wessex?

7. By what means did Æthelred try to get rid of the Danes? What name was given to the tax which he levied? What effect had his policy? Where did many Danes settle?

8. What mad scheme did Æthelred next devise? When was the deed perpetrated? Who revenged the cruelty? When did he return with the view of conquering England? What provinces joined him? What towns did he take? Where was he proclaimed King? Where did Æthelred go? Who died soon afterwards? Who was his successor? What did the English then do? What success had Æthelred?

9. How did Æthelred provoke another invasion? Who succeeded Æthelred?

10. How long did Edmund struggle to secure the crown? What agreement was made? When did Edmund die? Who was acknowledged as King?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. **843.**—France and Germany became independent States by the Treaty of **Verdun.** Charles ruled France, and Louis Germany: both were grandsons of Charlemagne. Lothaire, a third brother, though the eldest, was defeated by Charles and Louis at Fontenaille, and had to content himself with Italy. The old Frankish kingdoms were again temporarily united under Charles the Fat in 884; but he was deposed, and the kingdoms were again and permanently separated.

2. **862.**—Ruric the Jute founded a Norse kingdom in Russia.

3. **911.**—Rollo, a Norseman (called Rolf the Ganger), wrested Neustria from Charles the Simple of France, and founded the Dukedom of Normandy.

4. **940.**—The Kaliph of Damascus transferred his executive power to his chief minister, with the title of Chief **Emir**—"commander of commanders." This step is parallel to that of the Merovingian Kings of France, who handed over their functions to the Mayors of the Palace. (See 613.)

5. **962.**—**Otto the Great,** who became Emperor of Germany in 936, was crowned Emperor of the West at Rome, by Pope John XII. Otto was the son of Henry the Fowler, Duke of Saxony, the founder of the Saxon line of Emperors. The last of the line was Henry II., who died in 1024.

6. 996.—**Hugh Capet** (succeeded 987) fixed his capital at Paris, and founded the **Capetian** dynasty in France.

QUESTIONS.—1. What treaty made France and Germany independent States? By whom was each ruled?—2. Where was a Norse kingdom founded in 862? By whom?—3. When did the Norsemen settle in France? Who was the founder of their dukedom there?—4. To whom was the executive power of the Kaliphs transferred? To what is this step parallel?—5. Who was the first of the Saxon Emperors? When did the line expire?—6. Who founded the Capetian dynasty in France? Where did he fix his capital?

CHAPTER VI.

THE DANISH KINGS.

	A.D.
Canute (son of Sweyn)	1017
Harold I. (son)	1035
Hardicanute (half-brother)	1040–1042

1. Removal of the English Princes.
2. The Four Earldoms.
3. Earls Godwin and Leofric.
4. Popular Traditions about Canute.
5. Canute's Later Days.
6. Reign of Harold. I.
7. Return of the English Princes.
8. Reign of Hardicanute.

1. *CANUTE.*[1]—The Danish King's first care was to remove all rivals. The surviving sons of Æthelred II. were Edwy, Edward, and Alfred. Edwy he caused to be murdered. Edward and Alfred were in Normandy with their mother, Emma, and were thus out of his reach. But he married Emma, though she was much older than he, promising that the crown should go to his and her children. Edward and Edmund, the infant sons of Edmund Ironside, were conveyed to Sweden, and thence to Hungary; where Edmund died in youth. Edward married a niece of the Queen of Hungary. Their son was Edgar the Ætheling, whom William the Conqueror excluded from the throne.

2. The better to govern his kingdom, Canute divided it into **four great earldoms,**—Wessex, Mercia, East Anglia, and Northumbria. He gave Mercia to an English noble who had helped him to secure the throne. He gave East Anglia to one Dane, and Northumbria to another, and he reserved Wessex for himself. Though he had won the crown by unsparing cruelty, he proved a wise and popular ruler. The object of his

[1] *Canute.*—Son of Sweyn of Denmark. Married, for his second wife, Emma of Normandy, widow of Æthelred II. Reigned 18 years.

policy was to blend Danes and Englishmen together; and it was really by him that all England was permanently brought under one strong government. To reconcile the English to his rule, he sent most of his Danish sailors and soldiers back to Denmark, retaining only a body-guard of six thousand men.

3. In 1020, Canute made **Godwin** (Godwine), an Englishman, Earl of Wessex; and about the same time **Leofric,** another Englishman, Earl of Mercia. These two Earls ere long became the most powerful men in England.

1020 A.D.

Godwin heartily supported Canute's policy, and took an active share in his wars. It was through his influence chiefly that the Old English line was restored in 1042: the King Harold who was slain at Senlac was his son.

4. Canute became a favourite with his people, and many interesting stories have been handed down regarding his justice and his wisdom. Though these stories may not be exactly true, they yet show the popular estimate of his character. Having on one occasion killed a soldier in a fit of anger, he, in presence of his body-guard, laid aside his crown and sceptre, and begged them to pronounce sentence on him. All were silent, and Canute imposed on himself a fine nine times greater than the legal sum. Again, at Southampton, he is said to have rebuked the flattery of his courtiers, by setting his chair upon the shore and commanding the waves to retire. While the tide was flowing round his feet, he sternly blamed the folly of those who compared a weak earthly King to the Great Ruler of the Universe.

5. The claim of this King to the title "Great" rests partly on his wise government, which made England one kingdom; partly, also, on the extent of his dominions. Besides England, he ruled over Norway, Sweden, and Denmark; and he is said to have exacted homage from Malcolm of Scotland. In his later days he became religious in life, endowed monasteries, and built churches. He went, staff in hand, clad in pilgrim's gown, to Rome. There he obtained from the Pope exemption for English pilgrims from the heavy dues then levied on travellers. He also introduced the Christian faith into Denmark. He died at Shaftesbury, and was buried at Winchester. By his first wife he

1035 A.D.

had two sons, Sweyn and Harold. His second wife, Emma, widow of Æthelred, bore him a son and a daughter—the former named Hardicanute (Harthacnut). To Sweyn was allotted Norway; Harold seized England; while Hardicanute was forced to content himself with Denmark.

6. *HAROLD I.*[1]—By Canute's desire, the crown of England was to have devolved on Hardicanute; but **Harold**, surnamed "Harefoot," seized it without delay. The Witan, meeting at Oxford, divided the country between the rival Princes; assigning to Harold, London and the counties north of the Thames; to Hardicanute, the district south of that river. The latter, however, trifled away his time in Denmark, and left the support of his claims to his mother Emma and Earl Godwin. **1036** A.D.

7. About this time, Edward, son of Æthelred, landed at Southampton, to assert his right to the throne; but, being menaced by a formidable force, he abandoned the enterprise. His brother Alfred, who was soon afterwards enticed over from Normandy by a letter from Emma, met a cruel death at Ely, where his eyes were torn out by the officers of Harold. Emma in alarm fled to the court of Baldwin, Count of Flanders. Harold died at Oxford in 1040.

8. *HARDICANUTE.*[2]—Hardicanute (Harthacnut) was on his way to England with a large fleet, when he heard of Harold's death. On his arrival, he was at once acknowledged King; but great discontent was at first excited by the oppressive taxes he imposed. He wreaked a poor revenge on Harold's dead body, which was by his order dug up, beheaded, and flung into the Thames. The blame of Alfred's murder was by many, though without any good reason, cast upon Earl Godwin, and he lost favour with the King; but his peers having sworn to his innocence, he was reïnstated. As a peace-offering, he presented to Hardicanute a ship, of which the stern was plated with gold, and which bore eighty warriors glittering with decorations of gold and silver. Hardicanute died suddenly at Lambeth, at the marriage-feast of a Danish noble, and was buried at Winchester. **1040** A.D.

[1] *Harold I.*—Son of Canute. Reigned 5 years.

[2] *Hardicanute.*—Son of Canute and Emma of Normandy. Reigned 2 years.

QUESTIONS.—1. What was Canute's first care? Who were the surviving sons of Æthelred II.? What became of Edwy? How were the other two saved? Whom did he marry? What became of the sons of Edmund Ironside? Who was Edward's son?

2. Into what earldoms did Canute divide his kingdom? To whom did he give them? What kind of ruler did he turn out to be? What was the object of his policy? What was really done by him? What was done with his Danish sailors and soldiers?

3. Who became Earl of Wessex in 1020? Who was made Earl of Mercia about the same time? What did these two men become?

4. Mention the stories that are told about Canute. What do they show?

5. On what does Canute's claim to the title "Great" rest? What countries besides England did he rule? What kind of life did he lead in his later days? What privilege did he obtain from the Pope? When did he die? What family did he leave?

6. Whom did Canute name as his successor? Who did succeed him? What arrangement did the Witan make? How was Harold left in possession of the whole country?

7. What other Prince claimed the throne? What was the fate of his brother Alfred?

8. Where did Hardicanute hear of Harold's death? How did he at first excite discontent? What indignity did he put on his brother's corpse? How did Earl Godwin fall out of favour? How was he reïnstated? What was his peace-offering to the King?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. 1026.—Sancho, Count of Navarre, became King of Castile in Spain.

2. 1061.—Roger, a Norman Prince, drove the Greeks and Arabs out of Sicily, and established himself as Count there. (See 1130.)

QUESTIONS.—1. Who became King of Castile in 1026?—2. What Norman Prince established his power in Sicily in 1061? Whom did he dispossess?

A NORSE GALLEY.

CHAPTER VII.

THE ENGLISH RESTORATION.

A.D.
Edward, the Confessor (son of Æthelred II.).....1042
Harold II. (son of Earl Godwin).....1066

1. The English Restoration.
2. Beginning of Norman Influence.
3. Revolt of Earl Godwin.
4. Visit of Duke William of Normandy.
5. Restoration of Earl Godwin and his Sons.
6. Rise of Earl Harold.
7. Return of Edward the Ætheling.
8. Great Power of the Earldoms.
9. Rise of Edwin and Morcar—Tostig in Exile.
10. Death of Edward—Harold Elected King.
11. Accession of Harold.
12. Invasion of the Norsemen.

1. *EDWARD, THE CONFESSOR.*[1]—Edward, son of Æthelred and half-brother of Hardicanute, being then in England, received the crown. He owed this chiefly to the influence of Godwin, whose power had been steadily growing ever since Canute's death. The surviving son of Edmund Ironside had a prior claim to the throne; but this was forgotten in the joy with which the people hailed the restoration of the English line. So great was the favour with which Edward was received, that he was permitted to take back all grants that had been made by his predecessors—an act rendered necessary by the poverty of the throne. His resources were further increased by the confiscation of treasure amassed by his unnatural mother, Emma.

2. The King was about forty at his accession, and had spent twenty-seven years at the Norman Court. It is not surprising, therefore, that he regarded with peculiar favour the friends of his youth, and bestowed upon Normans some of the chief offices of State. The French language and French fashions were adopted at the English Court. Lawyers wrote their deeds and clergymen their sermons in Norman French.

1042 A.D.

3. This displeased the English, and **Earl Godwin** was foremost in revolt. Godwin's power was now at its greatest. The King had married his daughter Edith. His own earldom embraced all England south of the Thames. One son, Harold,

[1] *Edward.*—Son of Æthelred II. and Emma of Normandy. Married Editha, daughter of Earl Godwin. Reigned 24 years.

was Earl of East Anglia; another son, Sweyn, possessed most of Mercia. Godwin's great influence aroused the jealousy of the King's Norman friends, who soon found an opportunity of matching their power with his. A bloody fray had taken place at Dover, a town under Godwin's protection, between the burghers and the retainers of Eustace, a Norman Count who had married the King's sister. Edward, instigated by his Norman favourites, commanded Godwin to punish the insolent citizens; but the Earl took the field rather than submit. A delay took place, until the Great Council should decide
1051 the points in dispute. In the meantime Godwin's army
A.D. fell away from him, for his grasping policy was by no means liked by the English. He and his family were forced to seek refuge abroad, some in Flanders, and some in Ireland. The Queen was deprived of her lands, and placed in custody of Edward's sister, the Abbess of Wherwell in Hampshire.

4. As soon as this revolt began, Edward asked aid from **William, Duke of Normandy**; but when the fleet of that Prince appeared off the English shore, all need for help had
1052 passed away. Nevertheless, the Norman landed with
A.D. his knights, and was hospitably entertained by Edward, who, it is related, promised to name him heir to the crown. William heard French spoken on all sides; saw Dover, Canterbury, and the leading towns defended by Norman garrisons; and noted many other signs of Norman influence.

5. The same year Godwin and his sons returned. The English refused to fight against them; and the King, by advice of Bishop Stigand, made a truce with them and referred
1052 the dispute to the Witan. Thereupon the Norman
A.D. bishops and nobles fled, some to Scotland and some beyond seas. The Witan restored Godwin and his sons to their lands, and outlawed the foreigners. But Godwin did not long enjoy his triumph. He died early in the next year, and his son **Harold** succeeded both to his earldom of Wessex and to his influence.

6. In 1054, Siward, Earl of Northumbria, led a large army into Scotland, dethroned **Macbeth**, and restored Malcolm, a son

of the murdered Duncan. Siward died in the following year, and the Witan gave his earldom to Tostig, Harold's brother. This still further extended Harold's power. **1055** At this time the two other earldoms were also held by A.D. members of one family,—Mercia by Leofric, and East Anglia by Leofric's son, Ælfgar. Ælfgar, charged with treason and outlawed, fled to Wales. He joined the Welsh King in an invasion of England. Harold was sent against them, and both then and afterwards gained great glory by his victories over the Welsh. He imposed on the Welsh a law dooming every Welshman found east of Offa's Dike to lose his right hand.

7. To remove the danger of a disputed succession, Edward, by the advice of the Witan, sent for **Edward the Ætheling,** son of Edmund Ironside, then an exile in Hungary. He came with his wife, Agatha, and three children, **1057** Edgar, Margaret, and Christina ; but he died soon after A.D. his arrival. About this time Harold, having been shipwrecked on the Norman coast, was seized by William, and, it is said, was made to swear over sacred relics to support his claim to the English throne.

8. In the same year Earl Leofric died, and was succeeded by his son Ælfgar, who had been restored to his earldom of East Anglia. The latter earldom was then given to Gyrth, another of Harold's brothers, while he parted with Essex and Kent to a third brother, Leofwine. Thus the whole of England was held by the four sons of Godwin, except that part which belonged to their rival, Ælfgar. We hear little during all these years about King Edward, who was busily engaged with those holy works which afterwards gained for him the title "Confessor." It seems as if **the earldoms** were overshadowing the kingdom, and as if the struggles of Edwin and Penda, of Offa and Cynewulf of Wessex, were being revived.

9. Ælfgar died about 1064, and was succeeded by his son **Edwin.** In the following year the Northumbrians rose against Tostig, in consequence of his cruelties, and **1065** drove him out. The Northumbrians chose **Morcar** A.D. (Morkere), another son of Ælfgar, to be their Earl. Tostig, who blamed Harold for the revolt of his subjects, re-

tired to Flanders to scheme ways of avenging himself on his brother.

10. Before these plans were ripe, Edward died, and Harold was at once chosen King by the Witan (Jan. 5, 1066). **1066** A.D. Edgar the Ætheling, being thought too young to wear the crown in times so threatening, was consoled with the earldom of Oxford. Edward the Confessor was in his sixty-sixth year when he died. He was buried in Westminster Abbey, which had been erected by himself on the site of an old church to St. Peter. About a century after his death his name was ranked among the saints of the Roman Catholic Church. The chief benefits he conferred upon his people were, the compilation of a code of laws, embracing all that was good in former legislation; and the repeal of the tax Dane-geld in a time of sore distress from failing crops and dying cattle.

11. *HAROLD II.*[1]—It was not the fate of Harold to wear his crown in peace; for, from the day of his accession, the dread of a Norman invasion haunted him. William resolved to stake on the issue of a battle the crown, which he claimed as his own by the bequest of the Confessor; and all Normandy resounded with preparation.

12. Meanwhile other foes descended on the shores of England. Harold Hardrada,[2] King of Norway, and Tostig, the outlawed brother of Harold, sailing up the Humber, captured York, the capital of Northumbria. Harold pushed northward, and was met by the invaders at **Stamford Bridge**, north-east of York. There the Norwegian spearmen formed a glittering circle, their royal banner floating above them. Again and again the English cavalry dashed upon the serried ring, but **1066** A.D. without avail, until the hot Norway blood led some to break their ranks in pursuit. Instantly Harold poured his troops through the gap, and cleft the circle like a wedge. Hardrada fell shot through the neck, and Tostig soon lay dead beside him.

QUESTIONS.—1. Who succeeded Hardicanute? Through whose influence chiefly? Who had a prior claim? What shows the favour with which he was received?

2. How old was Edward at his acces-

[1] *Harold II.*—Son of Earl Godwin. Married Ealdgyth, daughter of Ælfgar of Mercia. Reigned 9 months.

[2] *Hardrada.*—That is, "Hard in rede; determined in counsel." He had fought in Africa and Sicily.

sion? How long had he lived in Normandy? What were the consequences of this?

3. Whom did the growing Norman influence displease? Who led the revolt? Why was he so powerful? Who were jealous of his power? What occasion did they take to test it? What did they instigate the King to do? What did Godwin do? Why was he obliged to flee? How was the Queen treated?

4. Whose aid had Edward asked? Why was it unnecessary? What promise is Edward said to have made to William? Of what did William notice signs?

5. When did Godwin and his sons return? What insured their success? Where did the Normans go? What did the Witan do? Who died soon afterwards? Who succeeded him?

6. On what expedition did Siward go in 1054? Who succeeded Siward? Whose power was thus extended? Who at this time held the two other earldoms? What led Ælfgar to join the Welsh? Who was sent against the Welsh? What law did he impose on them?

7. How did Edward try to avoid a disputed succession? Whom did the Ætheling bring with him? What happened soon after his arrival? What occurred to Harold about this time?

8. How did Harold's brother get East Anglia? How much of England belonged to the sons of Godwin? Of whom do we hear little during these years? What struggles seem to have been returning?

9. Who succeeded Ælfgar? What earldom did his brother get? How? Whom did Tostig blame for this? What did he prepare to do?

10. When did the King die? Who was chosen to succeed him? With what was the Ætheling consoled? Where was Edward buried? What were the chief benefits which he conferred on his people?

11. What dread haunted Harold from the day of his accession? What ground was there for this?

12. What other foes attacked England? What town did they take? Where did Harold meet the invaders? What enabled him to break their ring? Who were killed?

CHAPTER VIII.

SOCIAL CONDITION—OLD ENGLISH PERIOD.

1. King and Queen.
2. Classes of Nobles.
3. Slaves.
4. The Witena-gemôt.
5. Administration of Justice.
6. Social Morality.
7. Theft.
8. Trial by Ordeal.
9. Houses.
10. Daily Life.
11. Feasts.
12. Drinking — Music — Female Occupations.
13. Coinage.
14. Idolatry.
15. The Monasteries.
16. The Language.
17. Leading Authors.

1. At the head of the nation stood the **Cyning**, or "King" (said to be from Gothic *kuni*, "race," and signifying head of the race). He was elected by the Witena-gemôt, or Great Council, from among the relatives of the late King; and was generally chosen on account of his fitness for the office. The name "Queen" (meaning *woman*) and the honours of Royalty, were

conferred on the wife of the King, until Eadburh, Queen of Wessex, forfeited all distinctions by poisoning her husband. From that time the English Queens bore no title but "The lady;" and none except Judith, wife of Æthelwulf, received the crown, or sat on the throne beside her husband. Indeed, in style and position, the wife of the Monarch resembled the lady rather than the Queen of our day. The monk Ingulf tells us that when he was a boy, Edith, wife of Edward the Confessor, would often stop him as he came from school, to make him repeat his grammar lesson; and, if he did well, would give him a piece of silver and send him to the pantry.

2. Next to the King were the **Eldermen** (*ealdormen*, magistrates). Governing in the name of their Sovereign districts called *shires* (from *scyran*, "to cut"), they led to battle the men under their rule, presided with the Bishop over the courts of justice, and received one-third of the fines and royal rents paid within their counties. The inferior nobles were called **Thanes** (men, soldiers; from German, *degen*, "a sword," the emblem of the male sex), and consisted of those who possessed at least five hides of land. The lowest class of freemen were the **Ceorls** (hence churl) or husbandmen; with whom we may rank the Burghers, or inhabitants of towns. The latter were engaged in trade, and were in most respects freemen.

3. The lowest class were slaves (*theowas*). Most of these lived on the land of their lord, close to his castle. Besides those born in bondage, all captives in war and persons arrested for debt or crime became slaves. Sad and humiliating was the ceremony of degradation. Before a crowd of witnesses, the hapless man laid down the sword and the spear which he had borne as a freeman, and, whilst in a kneeling posture he placed his head beneath his master's hand, took up the bill and the goad. Many slaves were released by the bounty of their masters; others, engaging in trade and handicraft, acquired money enough to buy their freedom. The sale of slaves was quite common, the usual price being four times that of an ox. Foreign slaves were often imported; and although all export was forbidden by law, the people of the coast carried on a profitable trade in men and women. Bristol was long notorious for its slave-market.

4. The Great Council was called **Witena-gemôt**, or "the meeting of wise men," and was formed of the higher clergy and the nobles. They met regularly at Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide, but were often summoned on special occasions. They were the advisers of the King, the judges of State criminals, and had the general superintendence of the courts of justice. One important branch of their power has been already noticed—in their hands lay the appointment of a new King.

5. Throughout the land **justice** was administered in various courts; in which also, before magistrates and witnesses, all bargains of purchase and sale beyond the value of twenty pennies were concluded. The execution of the laws was vested in officers called Reeves; of whom the chief in each county was called *Shire-reeve*,—the original of our Sheriff.

6. The **morality** of the Old English people was very far from being pure. The characters of even their best Kings were stained with drunkenness and worse vices. The chief crimes were murder and theft; and for these certain fines were inflicted. On the life of every freeman, according to his rank, was set a price, called *wer-gild* (that is, "man-money"), ranging from two hundred to six thousand shillings. If a man was killed, the murderer, on conviction, paid wer-gild to the widow or heir of his victim. A transgressor of the law forfeited his wer-gild instead of his life to the King.

7. Slaves were imprisoned or whipped; but the meanest freeman was exempt from this disgrace. **Theft** became so common in the time of the later Old English Kings, that it was punished by death. This punishment was abolished by Canute, who substituted mutilation, condemning a thief, three times convicted, to the loss of his eyes, nose, ears, and upper lip.

8. There were two methods by which a man accused of crime could clear himself. The first, called *compurgation*, was by swearing publicly to his innocence, and bringing a number of his neighbours—from four to seventy-two, in proportion to the offence—to confirm his oath. If this plan failed, recourse was had to the **Ordeal**. Those most used were by hot water, and by fire. For the former, a caldron of boiling water was set in the church, and a piece of stone or iron placed in it. Before

witnesses, the accused plunged his bare arm into the water and took out the weight. The priest, wrapping the scalded limb in clean linen, set on it the seal of the Church. It was opened on the third day, and, if the wound was perfectly healed, the accused was pronounced innocent. In the ordeal by fire, a bar of red-hot iron was placed on a small pillar, and the prisoner, grasping it, made three steps with it in his hand, and then threw it down. Innocence or guilt was decided in the same manner as in the ordeal by water.

9. The **houses** of the English improved very much during the six centuries of this period. At first they were nothing better than thatched huts with holes in the walls to admit the light. Even the cathedrals and the houses of the Kings were built of wood, not very well jointed; for we read of Alfred making lanterns to protect his candles from the draughts that swept through the chinks in his palace-walls! The dwellings of the lower and middle classes continued to be built of wood; but about the seventh century masonry was used for the lower part of the chief buildings. The few still existing specimens of architecture ascribed to this period are built of small rough stones, in a rude and massive style. But the evidence that these belong to this age rests on very uncertain ground.

10. The **daily life** of even the noblest was that of a half-savage people. The war and turbulence, which were the chief characteristics of at least four centuries of this period, were not favourable to the cultivation of the domestic virtues. When not engaged in war, the nobles amused themselves in hunting and hawking; and when the sports of the day were over, all—master and servant—met in the great hall. At the upper end of this, on a dais or raised part, was placed a rude table, canopied with hangings of cloth, to serve as a protection from draughts of air, and from the rain which often leaked through the roof; and there sat the lord, his family, and his guests. This table was served by slaves, who knelt as they offered to each huge joints on the spit; from which the chiefs cut slices with their daggers.

11. The principal article of **food** was swine's flesh; besides this, game and fish of various kinds, coarse cakes, and green pulse were used. The favourite drink was mead, a liquor fer-

mented from honey and water. Wine, beef, mutton, and wheaten bread were delicacies found only at the tables of the highest. The chief servants took their meal next, and in turn passed the joints to the lower end of the hall, where slaves, hounds, and hawks squabbled over the fragments of the feast.

12. The meal over, drinking began, and continued till all were intoxicated. To beguile the time, the national harp of five strings was passed round; and each took his turn in singing verses to its music. This general practice of **the musical art** is almost the only redeeming trait in a picture of coarse sensuality; but the tones of the harp were soon drowned in wild shouts of drunkenness, and often in the clashing of brawlers' swords, nor did the riot cease till sleep brought silence. They slept where they had feasted, lying on straw or rushes, and covered with their clothes. The ladies spent their time more peacefully, and to more purpose, in the use of the needle and the distaff. The linen and the woollen cloths, of which the long cloaks and close tunics of their lords were made, were the produce of their industry.

13. We know very little about the **coinage** of the Old English period. There was none but foreign gold: the coin most used was the Byzant—that is, the Byzantine gold *solidus*, worth forty Saxon pennies. Their silver coins were the penny, half-penny, and farthing; which seem to have resembled in size and value our florin, shilling, and sixpence. Their only copper coin, called "styca," was value for one-fourth of their farthing, or a little more than our penny.

14. When the Angles and the Saxons settled in Britain, they were the slaves of a gross and absurd **idolatry**, which prevailed among all the Northern tribes of Europe. They dedicated each day of the week to a particular deity; and we still name the days after their fashion. Sun-daeg (Sunday) and Moon-daeg (Monday) were set apart for the worship of the great lights of heaven; Tuiscaes-daeg (Tuesday), Wodenes-daeg (Wednesday), Thors-daeg (Thursday), and Freyaes-daeg (Friday), were sacred to Tuisco, Woden, Thor, and Freya; while Saturnes-daeg (Saturday) was devoted to the service of Saturn, a god borrowed from the Roman mythology.

15. Though Christianity had been introduced into Britain

before the time of Augustine, it was not till he and his followers landed in Kent that heathenism was entirely overthrown. The Old English priests spent their leisure in the practice of many arts. Painting on glass and working in metals were favourite employments of even the highest ecclesiastics; and not a few churches owed their bells and their coloured windows to the Dunstans of this age. The **monasteries** were now, as they continued to be for many centuries, almost the only seats of learning; and from their quiet cells issued the scanty pages of our Old English literature.

16. It must not be forgotten that the great body of the pure **English tongue**, as we read it in the Bible and the Pilgrim's Progress, as we speak it in the street and by the fireside, has come down to us from the Old English period. The Danes introduced some slight changes of construction, and left a few geographical names, such as those ending in "by," the Danish word for town; but their rule in the island made no permanent impression on the language, which has continued, through all changes of the nation, to be in spirit and in structure essentially one, from the days of Egbert to the days of Victoria.

---

17. LEADING AUTHORS OF THE PERIOD.

GILDAS, the first British historian—born at Alcluyd (Dumbarton)—wrote a *History of the Britons* in Latin—died 570 A.D.

CAEDMON, a monk of Whitby — our earliest Old English writer —wrote religious poetry on the *Creation*, &c. — died about 680 A.D.

ALDHELM, a famous Latin scholar—Abbot of Malmesbury—died 709 A.D.

BEDE, called "Venerable"—born about 672 at Jarrow in Durham—chief work, *The History of the Anglian Church*—died 735 A.D.

ALCUIN, born at York or in Scotland—teacher of Charlemagne—wrote poetry, theology, and elementary science—died at Tours 804 A.D.

JOHN SCOTUS ERIGENA, a native of Ireland – flourished about middle of ninth century—lived chiefiy in France—said to have been "the only learned layman of the Dark Ages."

ALFRED, King of England—translated the *Psalms*, *Bede's History*, *Æsop's Fables*, &c., into Old English—died 901 A.D.

ASSER, a Welshman—Writer of *Alfred's Life*—died 909 A.D.

ALFRIC, called the "Grammarian," from a *Latin Grammar* he wrote —Archbishop of Canterbury in close of tenth century—composer of *Eighty Homilies* in Old English.

QUESTIONS.—1. What was the title of the head of the nation? How was he appointed? From what word is the title "Cyning" derived? How was the consort of the Cyning styled? Which of the Queens was allowed to sit on the throne beside her husband? What did the position and style of the Queen resemble?

2. What class of nobles was highest in rank? What were their powers and privileges? What was the title borne by the lower order of nobility? What qualification was necessary to this dignity? What was the lowest class of freemen? Whom may we rank with the Ceorls? In what were they engaged?

3. Who formed the lowest class? What were the two kinds of slaves? Describe the ceremony of degradation. What was the market value of a slave? What town was famous for its slave-market?

4. What was the Great Council of the nation called? At what seasons did it assemble? What were its duties and powers? Whose appointment lay in its hands?

5. What have you to say about bargains of sale and purchase? What were the officers called in whom the execution of the laws was vested? What was the title of the chief officer in each county? Of what office in modern time was this the original?

6. What was the moral condition of the people? What were the chief crimes? How were these crimes punished? What was the price of a freeman's life called? To whom was the "wer-gild" paid?

7. How were slaves punished? How was theft punished by the later Kings? By Canute?

8. How could a man accused of crime clear himself? Describe the Ordeals.

9. When was masonry first used for the chief buildings? Describe the houses of the period.

10. Relate what you know of the daily life of the people. How did the nobles pass their time? Describe an Old English feast.

11. What was the principal article of food? the favourite drink?

12. What was the chief pastime after the meal? Where did the guests sleep? How did the ladies spend their days? What materials were used for clothing?

13. What is known of the Old English coinage? What was their gold coin? What were the silver and the copper coins? What was the value of each?

14. What do you know of the religion of the Angles and the Saxons? What were their names for the days of the week?

15. How did the Old English priests spend their leisure time? What were almost the only seats of learning?

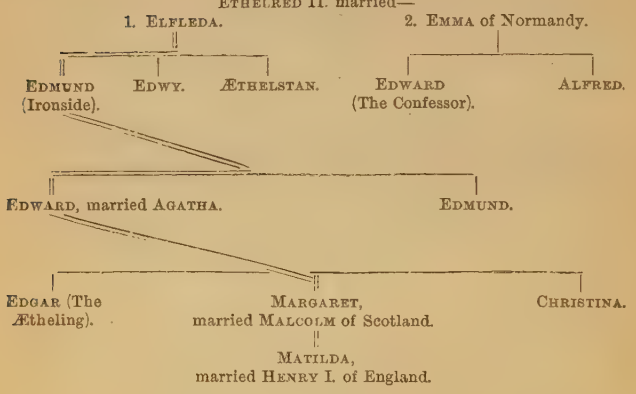
16. What is said of the English tongue? What element did the Danes introduce?

17. Who wrote the *Creation? Alfred's Life? Eighty Homilies?* Who translated *Æsop, Bede,* and the *Psalms?* What works did Gildas and Bede write? State what you know of Erigena.

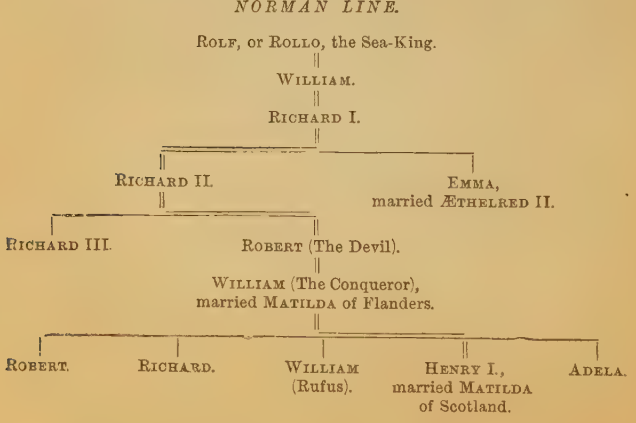
GENEALOGICAL TREES

CONNECTING THE OLD ENGLISH AND NORMAN LINES.

OLD ENGLISH LINE.



NORMAN LINE.



BOOK II.

FEUDAL MONARCHY.

	A.D.
HOUSE OF NORMANDY.	
William I. (The Conqueror)	1066
William II. (Rufus or The Red), son	1087
Henry I. (The Scholar), brother	1100
Stephen (of Blois), nephew	1135
HOUSE OF ANJOU.	
Henry II. (Curtmantle), grandson of Henry I.	1154
Richard I. (The Lion-hearted), son	1189
John (Lackland), brother	1199
Henry III. (of Winchester), son	1216
Edward I. (Longshanks), son	1272
Edward II. (of Caernarvon), son	1307
Edward III. (of Windsor), son	1327
Richard II. (of Bordeaux), grandson	1377
HOUSE OF LANCASTER.	
Henry IV. (Bolingbroke), grandson of Edward III.	1399
Henry V. (of Monmouth), son	1413
Henry VI. (of Windsor), son	1422
HOUSE OF YORK.	
Edward IV., great-great-grandson of Edward III.	1461

CHAPTER I.

THE BATTLE OF HASTINGS (SENLAC).

1. The Landing of the Normans.
2. The March to Hastings.
3. Harold's March Southward.
4. William's Proposals.
5. The Night before the Battle.
6. Position of the English Army.
7. Position of the Norman Army.
8. The Onset.
9. The Normans Driven Back.
10. Turn of the Tide.
11. Death of Harold.
12. After the Battle.

1. THE Battle of Stamford Bridge was fought on the 25th of September: on the 29th, William and his Normans landed without opposition on the coast of Sussex, near **Pevensey.**[1]

[1] *Pevensey* in Sussex, 5 miles south-west of Hailsham, is now a little village of 412 inhabitants. It is supposed to represent the old British town of *Ander-*

Not a human being was in sight. In safety and quiet the knights, clad in complete armour, with laced helmets and shields slung round their necks, descended on the shore, where their squires already stood holding their chargers by the head. Then the carpenters brought out the timber of three forts, shipped ready-cut from Normandy, with barrels full of pins for joining them together. Before night the Norman stores lay under a wooden roof. Duke William in landing fell forward on the sand! His train, filled with the superstition of the times, thought the omen bad, until with ready wit he cried, "See, my lords, I have taken possession of England with both my hands."

2. Marching next day along the shore to **Hastings**,[1] he established there a strong camp, and erected the two remaining forts.

From this centre the Norman ravages spread far and wide. The startled farmers fled from the surrounding country, driving before them huddled groups of oxen, swine, and sheep.

3. Harold and his exhausted army were nursing their wounds at York when the news of the Norman landing came. Without delay the King hurried to **London**, calling, as he passed, on all

ida. A castle, whose ruins still exist, and a harbour of some size, made it important about the time of the Conquest. Pevensey gives its name to one of the six *Rapes* into which Sussex has been long divided. The origin of the word "Rape" is unsettled.

[1] *Hastings*, a borough in Sussex, lies on the shore, sheltered by hills, about 64 miles from London. Kemble supposes it to have been the fort of the Haestingas. St. Leonards-on-Sea, once a mile off, has now grown and joined Hastings.

true Englishmen to gather round the banner of their native land. Many joined him on his march, but his brothers-in-law —Edwin of Mercia and Morcar of Northumbria—held aloof from him, and kept back their men. Some of his friends counselled delay, until the whole strength of the kingdom could be hurled upon the invaders. Brave young Gyrth, his brother, offered to lead a forlorn hope, while preparations were being made to secure a victory by leading a large and well-organized force against the shaken Norman lines. Rejecting both the offer and the advice, Harold tried to surprise his wily foe; but when he found that impossible, turning short in his march, he took up a strong position on **the Hill of Senlac**, about seven or eight miles from Hastings. Again, Harold was pressed to retreat on London, and waste the country as he passed, and thus starve the Norman army into a state of weakness. But yielding to his own impetuous nature, he resolved to stake his crown on the issue of an immediate battle.

4. This was playing quite into William's hands. Moving with his force from Hastings to a lower hill near Senlac,[1] the Norman leader sent a monk with three **Proposals** to the English King, demanding that he should either give up the crown at once, refer it to the disposal of the Pope, or stake it on the issue of a duel between themselves. Harold, rash indeed, but far from simple, rejected all three. Then came another message, offering to leave Harold all the land north of the Humber, and to give Gyrth all that Godwin had owned, on condition that the crown were forthwith handed over. This being also rejected, sentence of excommunication, pronounced in terms of a Papal bull lying ready in the Norman camp, struck a transient awe through the rough hearts of the English soldiery. But the terror soon passed, and a firm resolve to fight to the death arose in its place.

5. The night before the battle witnessed the Sussex hills alive

[1] The year after the Conquest, William began to build Battle Abbey on the field of his victory, placing, it is said, the high altar on the spot where Harold fell. The abbey, dedicated to St. Martin and filled with Benedictine monks from France, stood on a gentle rise overlooking a richly wooded, undulating country. The ruins of a later building on the same site still exist, scattered over the circuit of a mile. The place is 8 miles north-west of Hastings. A town called Battle (anciently *Epiton*) stands there now.

with a double line of twinkling fires, separated by a belt of darkness, where the surface dipped between the slopes. Very different were the **midnight occupations** of the rival armies,—the English roaring songs over horns of ale and wine, while the Normans fasted, heard mass, and confessed their sins. A few hours of sleep, and then the sun rose upon a most eventful day,—Saturday, the 14th of October 1066.

6. **The army of Harold**, amounting to scarcely 20,000 men, crowned the ridges of Senlac Hill with a row of battle-axes, then the national weapon. With shields locked together, they stood shoulder to shoulder in a solid mass, protected in front by a barricade of ash-wood stakes intertwined with rods of osier. Above them the royal standard, on which the figure of a warrior shone in blazon-work of gold and gems, swung heavily in the air. The men of London guarded the person of their King. The brave Kentish men stood in the van, for theirs was the privilege of striking the first blow in an English battle. Scattered among the ranks or marshalled in separate bands, hundreds of peasants, armed only with forks, slings, or sharpened stakes, lent their aid to defend the land they ploughed. A glorious army, indeed, in pluck and patriotism; but in equipment, drill, military science, and the art of manœuvring, far behind their Norman rivals.

7. Above **the ranks of William** floated a splendid banner, blessed by the Pope himself. His order of battle consisted of three divisions—archers, mailed pikemen, and knights in armour. The last he led in person. After a few fitting words, which told them that their only safety lay in victory, he proceeded to don his hauberk;[1] but in his haste he put it on wrong side foremost! Observing the alarmed looks of the soldiers around him, he hastened to interpret the omen in a favourable way, saying that it signified a change of Duke into King—another instance of his ready wit.

8. The battle began at nine o'clock in the morning by the **advance of the Normans.** Mingled with the bugle-calls that rang incessantly from the lines arose the gay notes of the minstrel Tailfer, who sang lays of Charlemagne and Roland as he rode

[1] *Hauberk.*—A shirt of mail, formed by interweaving small steel rings.

in front. The English, standing like a wedge of granite, replied with shouts of "Holy Rood!" and "Mighty God!" Up the slope came the Norman charge. Tailfer, having got leave from William to strike the first blow, pierced an Englishman with his lance, but was almost immediately cut down. The shock was terrible. The sweep of the English war-axe, the flash of swords, the thrust of lance and pike, and the showers of arrows, strewed the earth with bleeding clay, while battle-cries and screams of pain filled the air.

9. At last **the Normans gave way,** broken on the point of the English wedge, and their lines, deeply gashed with Kentish bills, staggered down the ridge. On one side lay a deep thorny ravine, which, in the hurry of advance, they had not seen; and into this floundered a heap of men and horses, the crushing weight of whose iron cases stunned them, or rendered them an easy prey to the pursuing enemy. It was probably then that Gyrth's spear killed the horse of the Norman Duke, who fell to the ground as if dead. A cry that their leader had perished spread dismay through the wavering Norman lines; and nothing but the sight of the Duke himself, who rode bareheaded into the thick of the retreating stream, could have turned the tide of battle at that critical moment.

10. So the battle raged from nine till three, huge waves of French cavalry, preceded by sharp arrow-showers, dashing on a great rock of Englishmen, only to recoil in broken spray. The Norman chroniclers, while dwelling on the great achievements of their countrymen, cannot avoid bearing witness to the surpassing valour of the English foe. But about three o'clock the tide began to run steadily and with growing force **against the English.** Aiming into the air, the Norman archers began to shoot so that their arrows fell like rain on the undefended heads of the enemy. One struck Harold above the right eye, and pierced down to the ball. Tearing it out, he leaned his bleeding face in awful agony on his shield. A pretended flight of the Normans then drew the English from their lines, and scattered them, leaderless, down the slope. This proved a fatal mistake. Norman swords soon hewed their way through the barricade of Senlac, and the last remnant of the English force clustered round the banner of their King.

11. Then twenty Norman knights took a vow to seize the English standard; and with a rush ten survivors of the twenty succeeded in piercing the gallant ring of footmen and tearing down the flag-staff. Close by lay **the corpse of Harold,** slain either by the arrow-wound or by blows on head and thigh received in the struggle around the banner. The October sun had set long before the noise of battle ceased. In the wood behind, the Islanders fought from tree to tree until thick darkness enabled them to flee.

12. When the Sunday morning began to glimmer over the silent field, bands of Norman plunderers went out to strip the slain. Wives and mothers, all fear lost in grief, sought wildly among heaps of corpses for the faces of those whom they loved. No trace of Harold could be found, it is said, until Edith of the Swan Neck recognized beneath a mask of blood and clay the mangled features of the dauntless King. Buried at first on the beach, the body of the last of the Old English Kings was afterwards taken from the sand at the earnest prayer of his mother Githa, and interred within **Waltham Abbey,**[1] which he had founded before the opening of his short and troubled reign. For many a year the legend circled round winter fires, that he had escaped from the field of Hastings with a wounded eye, and spent his last days as a monk within the ancient walls of Chester.

QUESTIONS.—1. When did the Normans land? Where? What incident occurred as the Duke landed?

2. Where did he march next day? Who fled as he advanced?

3. Where were Harold and his army at the time? What did the King at once do? Who held aloof from him? What offer did Gyrth make? Where did Harold take up a position? What was Harold further advised to do? On what did he resolve?

4. What proposals did William make? How were they treated? What was William's fourth proposal? What was done when that was rejected?

5. How were the two armies respectively occupied the night before the battle?

6. How many men had Harold? How were the English lines protected in front? Who guarded the King's person? Who occupied the van? What part did the peasants take in the fight?

7. How was William's army disposed? What occurred when he was donning his hauberk?

8. When did the battle begin? Who was Tailfer? What part did he play?

9. Who first gave way? Into what were they thrust down? What cry dismayed the Normans?

10. When did the tide of battle begin to turn? How was Harold wounded? By what stratagem were the English drawn from their lines?

11. What vow was taken by twenty

[1] *Waltham*, a market-town of Essex lies on the Lea, 13 miles from London

Norman knights? When did the battle and?
12. Describe the scene of next morning. Where was Harold at first buried? Where subsequently? What legend circulated for many years?

CHAPTER II.

THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

1. Interval of Doubt.
2. Coronation of William I.
3. Extent of his Power.
4. Measures of Security.
5. Revolt of the English.
6. Revolt Renewed.
7. The English Dispossessed.
8. Completion of the Conquest.

1. THE victory at Senlac was only the beginning of the Norman Conquest. That was the slow and laborious work of years. After the battle, the Duke pushed on to Dover, which surrendered. There he stayed eight days, until reïnforced from Normandy; and then he marched toward London. There the Witan had appointed Edgar the Ætheling King; his chief supporter being Stigand, Archbishop of Canterbury. Edwin and Morcar, who went to London after Harold's death, also supported him, in the hope that, as he was a young man, they would get more power into their own hands. William fixed his camp at Berkhampstead (Hertfordshire), to cut off communication with the north. Edwin and Morcar, alarmed for their earldoms, then fled; and Stigand, in name of the Witan, offered the crown to William.

2. *WILLIAM I.*[1]—The Conqueror was crowned at Westminster on Christmas-day; but not without tumult. Ealdred, Archbishop of York, during the ceremony, asked the English if they received William as their King. They assented with shouts. At once, as if on a given signal, the Normans around the Abbey, setting fire to the houses, began to plunder. All rushed from the church. William and the prelates stood alone by the altar. In haste the oath was taken and the ceremony ended. This event imbittered the feeling of the English toward their conquerors.

Dec. 25, 1066 A.D.

3. William then called himself King of England, but not till five years later was he master of the whole country. Edwin and Morcar had not submitted to him, and they held most

[1] *William I.*—Son of Robert, fifth Duke of Normandy. His wife was Matilda, daughter of Baldwin V., Earl of Flanders. Reigned 21 years.

of England north of the Wash and west of the Great Ouse. William's work during the next few years consisted in reducing the disaffected Earls and their earldoms to submission.

4. William began his reign well. He retained the English laws, granted a new charter to the citizens of London, and received Edgar among his nearest friends. But this did not last long. He felt that the sword must guard what the sword had won; and, to retain the Norman lords in his service, he rewarded them with the lands of the conquered race. The widows and heiresses of the English nobles who had fallen on the field of Senlac were married to Normans. The churches of Normandy were decorated with the spoils of England; and among other precious gifts from William to the Pope was the golden banner of Harold. The Conqueror built a fortress where the Tower of London now stands, and strengthened his position in Winchester—then the capital—by erecting a similar stronghold there.

5. Having thus spent six months, he passed over to Normandy, carrying in his train the flower of England's nobility. His friend Fitz-Osbern and his half-brother Odo were appointed Regents; and they ruled with a rod of iron. The English rose; and, when the Regents had trampled out the flame of insurrection in the east, it broke forth with greater violence than ever in the west and the north. After eight months William
1068 returned. The fall of **Exeter** reduced the west to
A.D. peace; and Edwin and Morcar, who had raised the standard of rebellion in the north, were surprised and forced to yield: York opened its gates, and even Malcolm of Scotland for a time retreated before the Norman.

6. Again the English of the north arose, massacred a body of Norman horse at Durham, and laid siege to York. They were joined by Edgar the Ætheling, who had been for some time the guest of Malcolm at Dunfermline. A Danish squadron arrived with timely help, and York was captured by the English. The King again marched northward. He
1069 made an agreement with the Danes, who withdrew on
A.D. receiving a sum of money. He then carried the northern capital at the sword's point. There he kept his Christmas Court, having sent to Winchester for his crown. With

fire and sword he now traversed York and Durham, taking a revenge so terrible, that from the Ouse to the Tyne there stretched for almost a century a vast wilderness, studded with blackened ruins, its soil unbroken by the plough. On his southward march he left garrisons of Norman soldiers in many strong castles.

7. No dignity, no power, very little land were now permitted to remain with the English. Even the monasteries, which were the banks of that time, afforded no safety from the royal officers, who without remorse rifled the sacred treasuries. The English prelates, too, were obliged to resign their cathedrals to Norman strangers. Of the latter the most distinguished was Lanfranc, appointed Archbishop of Canterbury in the room of Stigand. Many of the English land-holders, when driven from their estates, fled into the woods, and kept up an incursive warfare.

8. Of these **Hereward** the Outlaw was the most noted. He built a wooden fort, called "The Camp of Refuge," in the Isle of Ely, surrounded by marshes. There, joined by Earl Morcar, whose brother Edwin had been killed on the Scottish border, and by many other desperate spirits, he long bade defiance to William. Nor could all the efforts of the Norman soldiery, aided by the spells of witchcraft, avail to reduce this stronghold, until some treacherous monks of Ely showed the Conqueror a secret path over the encircling swamps. **1072** A.D. Malcolm of Scotland, who had married Margaret, sister of Edgar the Ætheling, now felt himself forced to be on a friendly footing with the Conqueror, though he refused to deliver up the English refugees who had fled to the north. Then may the Norman Conquest be said to have been at last completed.

QUESTIONS.—1. Where did William go after the battle? Whom did the Witan elect? Who supported Edgar? What led Edwin and Morcar to flee? Who offered the crown to William?

2. When was William crowned? Where? What took place at the coronation?

3. How long after that was it before William was master of the whole country? How were these years occupied?

4. How did William reward his Norman followers? With whom did he marry them? What fortress did he build? What was then the capital?

5. Where did William then go? Whom did he leave as regents in England? What did their conduct provoke? How was the west reduced to

peace? What success had William in the north?

6. Who aided the English of the north the following year? What terrible revenge did William take?

7. How did he then treat his English subjects? Who was made Archbishop of Canterbury? In whose room? To what kind of life did many of the English betake themselves?

8. Who was the most noted of these? Where did he defend himself? Who joined him? How was his stronghold taken? Who was then forced to make peace with William? Whom had he married? What did he refuse to do?

CHAPTER III.

FEUDALISM IN ENGLAND.

1. The System Described
2. Mode of Working.
3. Villanage.
4. Domesday Book.
5. The Curfew Bell.
6. The Forest Laws.
7. The Bridal of Norwich.
8. William's Quarrels with his Sons.
9. The Cinque Ports.
10. Death of William I.
11. Accession of William Rufus.
12. Odo's Plot.
13. Rufus Covets Normandy.
14. Death of Malcolm of Scotland.

1. The confiscated lands of the English which William divided among his Norman followers, were held by them on condition of military service being rendered in return. Thus there was introduced into England the **Feudal System**, which continued to hold great power over English society during the next four hundred years. It is true there were some traces of a similar plan among the English. Their thanes were the liegemen of the King; and many freemen sought protection by engaging themselves to thanes under a military tenure. But William made the system general. He introduced, with a few modifications, that form of feudalism which had been developed on the Continent. The system derived its name from *feudum*, a piece of land given in *fee;* that is, as a reward for services rendered, and a retainer for services to be rendered. Hence its leading feature, that a tenant, instead of paying his whole rent in corn, or cattle, or money, gave only a small portion of these, and for the rest was obliged to fight under his lord's banner, without any pay, when called to arms.

2. The King owned all the land: he allotted large districts to the nobles; they subdivided these among the gentry (the English *thanes*, called by the Normans *franklins*); these, again, sublet their land to their vassals,—in every case the higher requiring from the lower service in war. When the King needed an

army, he summoned his barons; they called to arms their franklins; these, their vassals and retainers: and thus a large force was gathered around the royal standard. William endeavoured to check the power of his barons, by making every freeman swear fealty, not only to his lord, but also to the crown, as well as by the careful adjustment of "feudal incidents"—special dues and rights belonging to the King. Still the power of the barons could not but be great, especially in times of disputed succession to the throne; and under the Norman Kings they often rebelled, and were constantly at war with one another. In connection with this system the great earldoms—Northumbria, Mercia, Wessex—were abolished, and the division into shires or counties was adopted.

3. By the Normans most of the English ceorls and all the serfs were treated as slaves, and were called *villains*. These were of two kinds: either they were attached to the soil on which they laboured, and could change owners only when it was sold; or they were the absolute property of their owners, could be sold in open market, and transferred from one estate to another. Both classes suffered equal hardships, especially during the first century after the Conquest. After Tyler's revolt villanage gradually declined, but not till after the destruction of feudalism did the villains emerge as the free peasantry of England.

4. It was in connection with feudalism that William caused the **Domesday Book** to be compiled. In order to ascertain the amount of the dues to which he was entitled from each estate, he sent commissioners into every county to survey the land. The result of their labours remains in Domesday Book. It is a register of English land, still preserved, in two vellum volumes, one folio, the other quarto, recording the size of each estate; its division into arable, pasture, meadow, and woodland; the name of the owner, and other details. **1086** A.D.

5. The Normans also introduced the **Curfew bell** (from *couvre feu*, "fire-cover") which was rung at eight o'clock in the evening, as a signal for putting out all fires and candles. Though long looked on as a tyrannical measure, it may have been wisely intended to preserve the wooden houses from being burned.

6. One of William's chief acts was the institution of the **Forest laws**—the origin of our Game laws. These laws inflicted on the man who killed a deer, a wild boar, or other beast of chase, the terrible punishment of having his eyes torn out. The land between Winchester and the sea was converted into an immense hunting-park by the King, who burned cottages and churches to clear the ground for his plantation. A portion of this park still remains, under the name of the New Forest.

7. The later days of the Conqueror were imbittered by many woes. While he was absent subduing a rebellion in Maine, a Norman plot, known as the **Bridal of Norwich** (1075 A.D.), because it was first broached at a marriage in that city, gathered to a head; but the rebels were defeated at Swaffham (Norfolk) by Lanfranc, who was acting as Regent. Every prisoner lost his right foot. Waltheof, last of the English Earls, being involved in this plot, was beheaded, although he gave evidence against his associates. Odo, having incurred the Conqueror's anger by aiming at the Popedom, was imprisoned in Normandy during his brother's life.

8. But William's chief troubles arose from his own children. Robert, the eldest, surnamed Curt-hose from his short legs, was nominal Duke of Normandy. His brothers, William and Henry, jealous of his power, insulted him by throwing a pitcher of water on him from a balcony in the street of the small French town L'Aigle. He rushed with drawn sword to take vengeance on them; but, on his father's interference, he withdrew, and left the town that evening. For five years he wandered in the neighbouring countries, secretly supported by his mother, Matilda. At length he fixed his quarters in the Castle of Gerberoi (Normandy), which William besieged, and before which the father and the son met unwittingly in single combat, when Robert wounded his father in the hand.

1079 A.D.

9. The Cinque (*five*) Ports[1]—Dover, Hastings, Romney, Hythe, and Sandwich—were now fortified, to guard the coast

[1] *Cinque Ports.*—The jurisdiction of the Warden of the Cinque Ports was abolished in 1855. The office is now purely an honorary one. The great Duke of Wellington held the office of Warden. He died in 1852, at Walmer Castle, the official residence of the wardens.

against invaders. To these Winchelsea and Rye were afterwards added. The Channel Islands were first annexed to England at the Norman Conquest. The revival of the Danegeld, forfeitures, royal rents, and tolls could not satisfy the King's avarice, although they raised his revenue to more than £1,000 a day. His reign was to the English one scene of misery; beginning in bloodshed and spoliation, it ended in famine and pestilence, caused by the rains and storms of 1086.

10. The French King sneered at William's corpulence when old; and from this trifling cause a war began. The English King, besieging Mantes, rode out to view the burning town; and the plunging of his horse, which trod on some hot ashes, bruised him severely. The bruise inflamed; and, after six weeks, the Conqueror died near Rouen (Normandy). **1087** His corpse, deserted by all his minions, who fled with A.D. the plunder of the palace, lay for three hours naked on the ground, and owed its burial to the charity of a French knight, who conveyed it to Caen (Normandy).

11. ***WILLIAM II.***[1]—The Conqueror was succeeded by his second surviving son, William, surnamed Rufus (the Red) from the colour of his complexion. Robert, in accordance with his father's will, was acknowledged Duke of Normandy; but, while he was enjoying the new dignity of his coronet at Rouen, his more active and ambitious brother had crossed to England, and, within three weeks after the Conqueror's death, had secured the crown, chiefly by the influence of Lanfranc.

12. A deep-laid plot to set Robert on the throne shook the newly founded dominion of William. Its leading spirit was **Odo,** Bishop of Bayeux and Earl of Kent. But the English, conciliated by some temporary concessions, and still **1088** remembering the cruel regency of Odo, supported Rufus. A.D. At their head, the King stormed the Castle of Rochester (Kent), and drove the rebellious prelate into exile in Normandy.

13. The duchy of Normandy, feebly ruled by the indolent though brave Robert, had great attractions for Rufus. By the skilful use of the treasures hoarded by his father, he soon

[1] *William II.*—Second son of William I. Reigned 13 years.

made himself master of all the fortresses on the right bank of the Seine, and prepared to follow up his fraud by force.

1091 A.D. But the Norman Barons and the French King reconciled the brothers, who agreed that the survivor should hold the united dominions.

14. No longer occupied with Norman affairs, William led an army against **Malcolm** of Scotland. Peace was made between the two countries; but the following year Malcolm again

1093 A.D. invaded Northumberland, being enraged at the settlement of an English colony at Carlisle, on land which had been held as a fief by the King of Scots since 945. Having laid waste the northern counties, the Scots encamped before Alnwick Castle.[1] There the English fell upon them unawares, and Malcolm and his eldest son were both slain.

QUESTIONS.—1. On what condition did the Norman nobles hold their lands? What system was thus introduced into England? How long did it last? What traces of a similar plan were there among the English? What was the nature of the change which William made? What is the origin of the name "feudal"? What was the leading feature of the system?

2. Describe the system in detail. How was an army gathered? How did William endeavour to check the power of his barons? When was their power especially great? What further change was made in connection with feudalism?

3. Who were the villains? What were the two classes of them? When especially did they suffer hardships? When did they become free?

4. What was the purpose of Domesday Book? What does it contain? In what form is it preserved?

5. What was the Curfew bell?

6. What were the Forest laws?

7. What was the Bridal of Norwich? What was the fate of Waltheof?

8. From whom did William's chief troubles arise? What took place at Gerberoi?

9. Name the Cinque Ports. What two were afterwards added? What tax did William revive? What was his revenue? In what did his reign end?

10. What was the cause of his death? Where did he die? Where was he buried?

11. Who succeeded? What was his surname? How did he secure the crown? Who got Normandy?

12. What plot shook William's throne? Who was its leading spirit? How was it defeated?

13. By what means did Rufus try to obtain Normandy? What agreement was made regarding it?

14. What led to Malcolm's renewed invasion of Northumberland? How did it terminate?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. 1076.—The Seljūk Turcomans (or Turks) conquered Syria and Palestine. They persecuted the Christian pilgrims who visited Jeru-

---

[1] *Alnwick Castle.*—About 34 miles north of Newcastle. This new castle had been built by the Conqueror to keep the Scots in check.

salem. These Turks were a Tartar people, originally from Turkestan. One of them had succeeded in gaining the Emirate of the Saracen Empire in 1056. Thenceforth their power grew.

2. 1077.—Henry IV., Emperor of Germany, submitted to the Pope, Gregory VII. (**Hildebrand**). This was the beginning of the "War of Investitures," and of that feud between Pope and Emperor which, in the next century, became a fierce struggle between the Guelphs (adherents of the Pope) and the Ghib'elines (adherents of the Emperor). It distracted Italy for three centuries. (See 1138.) Pope Gregory had decreed that all bishops appointed by laymen should resign. Henry resisted this decree. The Pope excommunicated him, and Henry had to stand barefoot in the snow for three days and three nights, before the Pope would receive his submission.

3. 1084.—The Emperor Henry IV. besieged Rome, and drove Gregory into exile, where he died, 1085.

4. 1087.—The Saracens in Spain, hard pressed by the Christians, called in the aid of the **Moors** (from Morocco in Africa) against the King of Castile. The Moors, who had been conquered by the Saracens in 707, and had been Mohammedans ever since, subdued the Saracens whom they came to help, seized their dominions, 1091, and founded a great Moorish kingdom in Spain. (See 1233.)

QUESTIONS. — 1. Who conquered Palestine in 1076? Who were these Turks? How did they treat the Christian pilgrims at Jerusalem? When did their power in the Saracen Empire begin?—2. When did the War of Investitures begin? What great struggle followed? What was the origin of the dispute? How was Henry IV. punished?—3. How did he avenge himself on the Pope?—4. Who pressed hard on the Saracens in Spain? Whose aid did the Saracens obtain? What was the result?

CHAPTER IV.

THE CROWN AGAINST THE CHURCH.—I. ANSELM.

1. The Quarrel with the Church.
2. Persecution of Anselm.
3. Earl Mowbray's Revolt.
4. Mortgage of Normandy and Maine to Rufus.
5. Death of Rufus.
6. Accession of Henry I.
7. The Charter of Liberties.
8. The Anglo-Norman Marriage.
9. Robert's Invasion.
10. Robert's Capture and Death.
11. The Ecclesiastical Compromise.

1. THERE began in Rufus's time a struggle between the Crown and the Church which lasted, under different forms, till the reign of John. The quarrel had its source in the power which the feudal system gave the King over Church lands as temporalities, and over bishops as his vassals. But its immediate occasion was the extravagance of Rufus, which knew no bounds.

The chief instrument of his extortion was Ralf, surnamed **Flambard** or the Torch, a Norman priest. Besides other means of raising money, this minister devised the plan of keeping abbeys and bishoprics vacant, that the King might receive their revenues; and of demanding, from those who obtained appointments, large sums as the price of the benefices. Hence arose the question whether the Church or the King had the right to appoint bishops, and other delicate points which agitated England for many a day.

2. The chief sufferer by William's system of extortion was **Anselm,** appointed Archbishop of Canterbury in 1093. Lanfranc had died in 1089. During the interval the King
1093 had kept the see vacant, and had drawn its revenues.
A.D. In a fit of remorse, brought on by sickness, he forced the office on Anselm, who was unwilling to accept it. When the King recovered, he demanded, through Flambard, the customary present of money at the Archbishop's installation. Anselm offered five hundred merks. This the King
1097 refused as being too little. Anselm had no more to give.
A.D. Then followed a long course of petty persecution; and at last, in 1097, the Archbishop was forced to quit England. He went to Rome and laid his case before the Pope.

3. The Norman barons were by no means reconciled to William's rule. A new plot, headed by **Robert Mowbray,** Earl of Northumberland, aimed at dethroning him. Mowbray retired to his strong castle of Bamborough (Northumber-
1095 land) and defied William. Being decoyed, however,
A.D. from this stronghold, he was made prisoner, and was brought before the castle walls, where Matilda, his wife, still held out. She refused to yield until she saw an executioner preparing to tear out her husband's eyes; then, to save him, she gave up the keys. For thirty years the Earl lingered in the dungeons of Windsor Castle.

4. William had agreed to repay Robert for the lost castles in Normandy; but the promise was never kept, for Will-
1096 iam was as faithless as he was greedy. Again the
A.D. sword was drawn by the brothers. Just then came an offer from Robert to transfer the government of Normandy and Maine to the English King for five years, on receipt

of 10,000 merks.[1] The **Wars of the Cross** had begun. The appeal of Pope Urban II. and the fierce war-cry of Peter the Hermit had stirred all Europe, and the knights of the First Crusade were on the march. Robert was eager to join their ranks, and hence his offer. William at once agreed to the terms; and the merks, wrung from the hapless English, carried Robert and his vassals to Palestine. Edgar the Ætheling, too, followed the red-cross banner of France.

5. Rufus died by violence. When hunting in the **New Forest** (Hampshire), his train gradually left him in the heat of the chase, and at sunset they found him lying dead, his heart pierced by a broken shaft. A cart bore the corpse to Winchester, where it was buried within the cathedral, but with no religious service. Whose hand sped the shaft none can tell. The common story is that Walter Tyrrel, one of his knights, aimed at a stag, but that the arrow glanced from a tree and pierced the King. Another account says that he was murdered.[2]

1100 A.D.

6. *HENRY I.*[3]—Immediately after William's death, his brother Henry rode to Winchester and seized the royal treasures. These being secured, he hastened to Westminster, and was there crowned on the following Sunday by Maurice, Bishop of London. Robert, whose the crown was by right, was absent on the Crusade, and still lingered in Italy on his homeward journey.

1100 A.D.

7. The early acts of Henry, like those of most usurpers, were intended to please the people. He published a **charter of liberties,** which was designed to secure the support at once of the Barons, the Church, and the People. On the first he promised to make no exorbitant demands. He set the minds of the clergy at rest regarding vacant benefices. He promised to abolish the curfew and Dane-geld, and to restore the laws of Edward the Confessor. One of his earliest acts was to recall Anselm.

---

[1] *Merk.*—The value of this coin was 13s. 4d.

[2] A wall round the Tower, a bridge over the Thames, and the Hall of Westminster were the chief public works of Rufus.

[3] *Henry I.*—Third son of William I Married (1) Edith-Matilda, daughter of Malcolm III. of Scotland, and of Margaret, sister of Edgar the Ætheling; (2) Adelais of Louvain. Reigned 35 years.

8. Henry's marriage was also a politic step, and did more than anything else to please the English. His wife was
1100 A.D. **Edith-Matilda**, daughter of Malcolm III. of Scotland, and niece of Edgar the Ætheling. This marriage, therefore, united the Norman and the English[1] royal line, and it helped forward that blending of the races which gave strength and unity to the nation.

9. To please the English and the clergy, Flambard, the minister of Rufus, had been imprisoned in the Tower by the new King; but, a friend having conveyed to him a rope hidden in a jar of wine, he escaped by a window, and
1101 A.D. reached Normandy. Robert had just arrived there with his Italian wife, and was easily induced by Flambard to invade England. He was marching on Winchester, when Henry overtook him. The Princes met in conference between the armies, and a few minutes decided the treaty. Robert agreed to give up his claim on England in return for a yearly pension of 3,000 merks. This allowance, however, he was afterwards forced to resign; for Henry detained him as a prisoner, and demanded the forfeiture of his pension as his ransom.

10. The disputes between the brothers grew worse daily, and ended in open war. The first campaign decided noth-
1106 A.D. ing; in the second, Robert was taken prisoner at the Battle of **Tenchebrai** (Bretagne). He was brought to England, and, after thirty years in prison, died at Cardiff Castle (Glamorgan) some months before his brother. Some writers say that his eyes were burned out.

11. During these wars, the quarrel with the Church had been reöpened. The contested points were, Henry's claims that the clergy should do homage for their lands; and that he, like his predecessors, should invest new abbots and prelates with the ring and crosier of their office. Anselm, who sided with the Pope, was banished a second time. He returned, however, after three years; and at the Council of London in 1107, Henry gave up his claim of investiture, but retained his right to homage for the temporalities of each see or abbey.

---

[1] *The Norman and the English royal line.*—See Genealogical Tree, p. 76.

QUESTIONS. —1. What struggle began in Rufus's time? How long did it last? What was the source of the quarrel? What was its immediate occasion? Who was the chief instrument of Rufus's extortion? What plan of raising money did he devise? What question arose out of this?

2. Who was the chief sufferer by William's extortion? In what circumstances was he made Archbishop? Who was his predecessor? About what did the King quarrel with him? When did Anselm quit England? Where did he go?

3. What new plot was formed against William? Who headed it? What was Mowbray's fate?

4. How did William get possession of Normandy and Maine? What led Robert to make this offer? How did William obtain the money?

5. How did Rufus die? Where was he buried? What is the common account of his death?

6. Who succeeded Rufus? Where was Robert?

7. What was the object of Henry's early acts? What charter did he publish? What different classes was it designed to please? How? What was one of his first acts?

8. Whom did his marriage please? Who was his wife? What union did this marriage effect?

9. Who induced Robert to invade England? How had Flambard escaped from the Tower? What agreement was made between Robert and Henry? How did Robert lose his pension?

10. In what did the disputes between the brothers end? What happened in the second campaign? What was Robert's fate?

11. What quarrel was reöpened during these wars? What were the contested points? Which side did Anselm take? What was the consequence of this? When did he return? When was the dispute settled? How?

CHAPTER V.

GROWTH OF THE BARONS' POWER.

1. Normandy Secured.
2. The *White Ship*—Death of Prince William.
3. The Angevin Marriage.
4. Accession of Stephen.
5. Increase of Baronial Castles.
6. Battle of the Standard.
7. Peace with Scotland.
8. The Civil War.
9. Stephen's Triumph.
10. Flight of Maud.
11. Treaty of Winchester.

1. A FEW years later, the war in Normandy was renewed. The Norman barons favoured the claims of Robert's son, William, to the dukedom; and his cause was embraced by the French King. But Henry triumphed on the field of **Brenville**, and his son William received the dukedom. **1119 A.D.**

2. On the voyage homeward the Prince was drowned. When he was about to embark in his father's ship, a sailor named Fitz-Stephen (whose father had steered the Conqueror's ship to England) offered the Prince the use of "**The White Ship**," manned by fifty rowers. The other vessels left the shore early in the day; but the *White Ship* delayed till sunset, the crew drinking and feasting on **1120 A.D.**

deck. They set out by moonlight, and were rowing vigorously to overtake the King's ship, when the vessel struck on a rock in the Race of Alderney, and all on board were lost, except a butcher of Rouen, who floated ashore on a piece of the wreck. William might have been saved, for he had secured a boat; but he returned to rescue his sister, and the boat sank with the weight of the numbers that leaped from the ship's side. It is said that, after hearing of this disaster, Henry never smiled again. This event revived the hopes of Robert's son, now Earl of Flanders; but his death, soon afterwards, left Henry without a rival for the Norman coronet.

3. Left without a son to inherit his throne, Henry exacted from the prelates and nobles an oath to support the claim of his daughter Maud, the widow of Henry V., Emperor
1125 A.D. of Germany. At the same time, to strengthen his connections in France, he caused her to marry **Geoffrey Plantagenet**, Count of Anjou, a boy of sixteen,—an alliance which pleased neither English nor Normans. The marriage was not a happy one, and the broils between Maud and her husband disturbed the later years of Henry's
1135 A.D. reign. The King died at St. Denis in Normandy, after seven days' illness, brought on by eating to excess of lampreys.[1]

4. *STEPHEN.*[2]—Although Stephen, Earl of Blois, had sworn fealty to Maud, he claimed the vacant throne in opposition to her. He was first Prince of the blood royal, and, be-
1135 A.D. sides being personally a favourite, he had on his side the feeling of feudal times, that it was disgraceful for men to submit to a woman's rule. He was joyfully received by **the citizens of London**, who proclaimed him King even before the barons had decided to accept him. His brother Henry, Bishop of Winchester, gained for him the leading clergy.

[1] Henry gained his surname of *Beauclerc*, or "good scholar," by translating *Æsop's Fables*. He was the first English King who delivered a formal speech from the throne. During his reign silver halfpence and farthings, which had previously been formed by clipping the penny into halves and quarters, were made round. The woollen manufacture was introduced by some Flemings, who settled first on the Tweed, and afterwards at Haverfordwest in Pembroke, and Worsted in Norfolk.

[2] *Stephen.*—Grandson of William I., his mother being Adela, the Conqueror's daughter. Married Matilda of Boulogne, niece of Queen Matilda, wife of Henry I. Reigned 19 years.

5. The embalmed body of Henry was escorted to Reading Abbey by Stephen, who helped to bear the coffin. After the burial, at a meeting of prelates and barons held at Oxford, Stephen, already crowned King, swore to abolish the Danegeld, to preserve the rights of the clergy, and to allow the barons the privilege of hunting in their own forests, and of building new castles on their estates. These concessions gained a strong party for Stephen; but the immediate result of the last was, that there arose throughout England one hundred and twenty-six **new castles.** These, as well as those built before, long continued to be the strongholds of lawless robber-nobles, who lived by plunder, and often headed their vassals against the King himself.

6. David of Scotland was the first to draw the sword for Maud. Thrice in one year with pitiless cruelty he ravaged Northumberland, which he claimed as his own. **1138** In his third invasion he reached Yorkshire; but he was A.D. there met at **Northallerton** by the northern barons and their vassals, who had been roused to action by the aged Thurstan, Archbishop of York. There was fought the Battle of the **Standard**; so called because above the **Aug. 22.** English forces rose the mast of a ship, adorned with the banners of saints, and surmounted by a cross, the whole being bound to a rude car.

7. The English chiefs knelt in prayer, and rose to battle. The Scots rushed to the onset with shouts, and bore back the English van. The flanks, too, yielded; but around the Standard the English spears formed an unbroken front. For two hours

the Scottish swordsmen strove, amid showers of English arrows, to hew their way to victory; but they spent their strength in vain, and had at last to hurry from the field scattered and broken. David collected his forces at Carlisle, where he was joined, three days later, by his son Henry; who had escaped into the woods by following the pursuit as an English knight. Early in the next year peace was made, and on terms so favourable to Scotland as to suggest that Stephen was anxious to conciliate the Scottish King. All Northumberland, except Bamborough and Newcastle, was conferred on Prince Henry of Scotland.

8. **Maud** soon landed on the southern coast with 140 knights. At first she occupied Arundel Castle in Sussex; but, with a generosity more chivalrous than politic, Stephen permitted her to reach Bristol, the chief stronghold of her half-brother, Robert, Earl of Gloucester. In the civil war that followed, London and the East sided with Stephen; Bristol and the West with Maud. The barons, who lived like independent Kings within their strong castles, watched its progress without joining much in its operations. The people were mercilessly robbed, imprisoned, and tortured by them; trade and tillage were neglected; and a man might have ridden for a whole day in some districts without seeing a cultivated field or an inhabited dwelling.

Sept. 30, 1139 A.D.

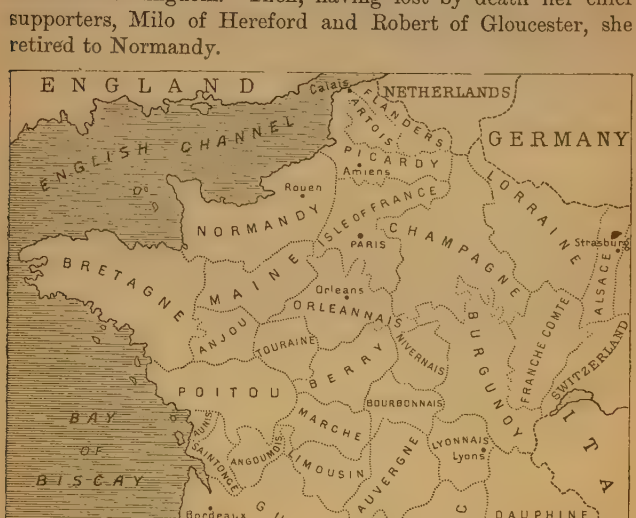
9. Maud's cause was at first successful. At the Battle of **Lincoln**, Stephen was made prisoner. Heavily fettered, he was cast into the dungeons of Bristol Castle; while his wife, Matilda of Boulogne, withdrew to Kent. Maud was then acknowledged Queen by the clergy; but her arrogance soon estranged her warmest supporters. The men of Kent, rising in Stephen's cause, entered London; and Maud, alarmed at the pealing of bells and the shouts of the citizens, fled on horseback to Oxford. The failure of an attack on Winchester, in which her brother Robert was taken prisoner, ruined her cause; and Stephen, exchanged for the Earl of Gloucester, sat once more on the throne.

1141 A.D.

10. Maud still held **Oxford**, and was there besieged by the King. She sustained the siege far into the winter, in the hope that Stephen would yield to the severity of the weather; but

famine forced her to leave the castle. She with three knights, all clad in white in order to escape the eye of Stephen's sentinels, fled over the snow, crossed the Thames on the ice, and reached Wallingford. She remained for four years longer in England, holding Gloucester as the centre of her sway, which was acknowledged in the western half of the kingdom. Then, having lost by death her chief supporters, Milo of Hereford and Robert of Gloucester, she retired to Normandy.

1142 A.D.



11. Her son Henry had been meanwhile growing up. He had been knighted at Carlisle by his uncle David; had succeeded, on his father's death, to Normandy and Anjou; and had gained Aquitaine[1] by his marriage with Eleanor of Poitou,

[1] *Aquitaine*.—Afterwards called Guienne. (See *Map*.)

the divorced wife of the French King. Thus powerful in France, he invaded England, to wrest from Stephen the crown of his grandfather; but the sudden death of Stephen's eldest son, Eustace, hindered the war, and a treaty was made at **Winchester**, by which Henry was acknowledged heir to the English throne, while William, surviving son of Stephen, was to inherit the earldom of Boulogne and the private domains of his father. Further difficulties were prevented by the death of Stephen in less than a year afterwards at Dover.

1152 A.D.

1154 A.D.

QUESTIONS.—1. What led to the renewal of the war in Normandy? Who obtained the dukedom? By what victory?

2. What accident happened on the homeward voyage? How did it occur? For whose sake did William sacrifice himself? What effect had the news on the King? What event secured Henry in the possession of Normandy?

3. To whom did Henry require his nobles to swear fealty? Whom did he cause her to marry? Where did Henry die? What caused his death?

4. Who claimed the vacant throne? What considerations favoured his claim? Who proclaimed him King? How did he gain the leading clergy to his side?

5. Where was Henry buried? Where was a meeting subsequently held? What did Stephen there promise? What did he thus gain? What was the result of his allowing the barons to build castles?

6. Who was the first to draw the sword for Maud? What battle was fought in his third invasion? Why so called?

7. Describe the battle. Who were victorious? When was peace made? What is remarkable about its terms?

8. Where did Maud land? What did Stephen permit her to do? How was the country divided in the civil war which followed? What was the policy of the barons? Who were the greatest sufferers? What was the state of the country?

9. Whose cause was at first successful? What estranged her supporters? Whither did she flee? How did Stephen recover the throne?

10. How did Maud escape from Oxford? How long after that did she remain in England? Where did she then go? Why?

11. What possessions did young Henry acquire in France? What step did he then take? What stopped the war? Where was a treaty made? Its terms? How were further difficulties prevented?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. **1096.—The First Crusade** set out for the Holy Land. It was preached by Peter the Hermit in 1095, to rescue Jerusalem from the Turks. (See 1076.) It reached Constantinople in 1097; Antioch was taken in 1098, and Jerusalem in 1099, when Godfrey, the leader of the Crusade, was proclaimed King of Jerusalem.

2. **1099.—The Cid** Roderigo (the great national hero of Spain) died. His reputed exploits are celebrated in numerous romances, founded on old Spanish ballads and popular poems. His career extended from

1064 till his death. He belonged to a noble family of Castile. He was twice banished, and for a time served with the Moors against both Saracens and Christians. The Moors are supposed to have given him the name of *The Cid*, which is an Arabic title, meaning "lord."

3. **1130.**—The Norman kingdom of Sicily, including both the island of Sicily and the south of Italy, was founded by Count Roger II., son of Roger I. (See 1061.) In the previous century, Norman adventurers had conquered the south of Italy. They had crossed to the island of Sicily in 1062. Sicily was united with the German Empire by the marriage of Henry VI. to Constance of Sicily. Their son, Frederick II., succeeded to both dignities in 1197. (See 1282.)

4. **1138.**—Conrad of Franconia and Henry the Lion of Saxony strove for the imperial crown. Henry (who was supported by the Pope) was head of the house of Welf; and in a great battle in 1040 the party cries were first used, "Hie Waiblingen!" "Hie Welf!" (See 1077.) As the struggle between these families, as well as the principles which they represented, had its chief theatre in Italy, their names assumed the Italian forms, **Ghibelini** and **Guelphi.**

5. **1139.**—Count Alfonso, having defeated the Moors, was declared first King of Portugal, as Alfonso I.

6. **1147.**—The **Second Crusade,** led by Louis VII. of France and Conrad III. of Germany, failed; and the crusaders returned to Europe.

QUESTIONS.—1. What was the object of the First Crusade? Who preached it? When did it reach Jerusalem? Who was proclaimed King there?—2. Who was the great national hero of Spain? When did he live? What is the meaning of the title "Cid"?—3. Who founded the Norman kingdom of Sicily? How and when was Sicily united with the German Empire?—4. When did the struggle between the Guelphs and the Ghibelines begin? What was its origin? When were these party names first used? How is their present form accounted for?—5. Who was the first King of Portugal? Whom did he overthrow?—6. Who led the Second Crusade? What was its fate?

THE TRAITORS' GATE.

CHAPTER VI.

NORMAN CUSTOMS AND NORMAN LIFE.

1. Chivalry.
2. Armour of a Knight.
3. Knights Templars and Crusaders.
4. The Tournament.
5. The Combat.
6. Rewards of Victory.
7. Sports of the Lower Classes.
8. Courts of Justice.
9. Baronial Castles.
10. The Keep.
11. Origin of the Feudal Town.
12. Meals.
13. Banquets.
14. Etiquette.
15. Dress.
16. Characters.
17. Female Dress.
18. Coinage.
19. Language.
20. Romances.
21. Surnames.
22. Leading Authors.

1. Closely interwoven with the Feudal System was **Chivalry** or Knighthood. As a knight, the King was on a level with the poorest gentleman, and passed through the same training,—serving first as a page, and then as an esquire, before he received his golden spurs and took the vows of knighthood. The night before this ceremony, the candidate for knightly honours held his *vigil;* when, within some dimly lit aisle, amid the tombs of the fallen brave, he kept a lonely and silent watch over the arms he was about to assume.

2. The **Knight,** when fully equipped, was clad from head to heel in armour formed of plates riveted firmly together: below this he wore a dress of soft leather. On his helmet was a crest; on his three-pointed shield a device,—his coat-of-arms. His chief weapon was the lance; but, besides, he wore a two-handed sword, and a poniard called "the dagger of mercy," used to kill a fallen foe; and he not unfrequently carried a battle-axe or mace. This last—a club with iron head studded with spikes—was the favourite instrument of war among the Norman clergy, who were often seen on the battle-field with a black cassock over their shining armour.

COAT-OF-ARMS.

3. The **Templars** were a famous order of military monks, founded in 1118 A.D. They wore over their armour a long

scarlet mantle, with an eight-pointed cross of white sewed on the right shoulder. Their robe of peace was white. The **Crusaders** also were distinguished by crosses of various colours. The English wore white, the French red, the Flemings green, the Germans black, and the Italians yellow.

KNIGHTS TEMPLARS.

4. The chief sport of chivalry was the **Tournament** or joust. It was held within an enclosed space called the lists. Ladies and nobles sat around in raised galleries to witness the sport, while the lower orders thronged outside the barriers. At each end of the lists tents were pitched for the rival knights. Then arose the clinking of hammers, as the rivets were closed by the armourers or smiths, at that time an important and honoured body of craftsmen. With flourish of trumpets the heralds proclaimed the titles of the knights, as they rode into the lists; and the cry, "Largesse! largesse!" by which the proclamation was followed, drew showers of gold and silver coins from the galleries.

5. In the middle of the lists stood the challengers, awaiting their adversaries. These, riding up, touched with their lances

the shields of those with whom they chose to contend. If the shield was touched with the sharp end of the lance, the combat was to be *a l'outrance*,—that is, for life or death, and with sharp weapons as in battle; while touching with lance reversed signified the more peaceful intention of using blunted weapons in a trial of strength. At sound of trumpet the combatants dashed at full gallop from opposite ends of the lists, and met in the midst with a terrible shock. When the knights were equally matched, the lances flew into splinters, and the horses were thrown back on their haunches; but when one struck with stronger and truer aim the helmet or the shield of his rival, the unlucky knight was hurled from the saddle to the ground, stunned, bleeding, and bruised by his heavy armour.

6. This "gentle and joyous sport," as the Norman minstrels called it, generally lasted two or three days. The victor in the tilting of the first day, besides winning the horses and armour of those whom he vanquished, had the privilege of naming some lady, who, as Queen of Love and Beauty, presided over the remaining sports. The second day was often devoted to a *mêlée*,[1] in which the knights fought in bands, till a signal to stop was given, by the King or chief noble present casting down his baton. The conqueror in the *mêlée* knelt, with all the stains of the conflict on him, to receive a crown of honour from the hands of the Queen of Love and Beauty.

7. After the tilting, the lower classes held sports, the favourite being archery, bull-baiting, and playing at quarter-staff. The last was a kind of cudgel-playing; the staff was a pole about six feet long, which the combatants grasped in the middle—striking, parrying, and thrusting with either end. Very similar to the tournament was the trial by combat; which, like the ordeal of the English, was the Norman appeal to the justice of Heaven.

8. In the reign of Henry II. the **Grand Assize** was instituted as a mode of deciding disputed cases. The verdict was given by four knights chosen by the sheriff, and sixteen others named by these four. The public business of the realm was transacted by the **Curia Regis**, which at the Conquest took the place of the Witena-gemot.

---

[1] *Mêlée.*—Pron. *mālā'*; a confused hand-to-hand conflict: from Fr. *mêler*, to mix.

9. The **Castles** of the Normans were built for strength and safety in turbulent days; and their gray ruins, still rising in solid grandeur here and there over the land, teach us how it was that the feudal barons were able so often and so successfully to bid defiance to the King. Their distinctive feature is the rounded arch, as opposed to the pointed arch and lancet-shaped window of the later Gothic style.

10. Encircled by the parapet and turrets of a wall about twelve feet high, stood the Keep. This was a square tower of five stories, with walls ten feet thick. The lowest story contained dungeons, the second was filled with stores, the third held the garrison, while the upper two were occupied by the baron and his family. The entrance to the keep was in the third story, and was reached by a winding stair in the wall. In the middle of this stair was a strong gate; at the top was a drawbridge; while before the door, a portcullis, dropping from above with iron teeth, effectually barred the entrance against all foes.

PORTCULLIS.

11. Around the whole castle ran a moat, or deep ditch filled with water; over which was thrown a drawbridge, defended at its outer end by a tower, called the Barbican. Close to the castle the shops and houses of those employed by the baron and his vassals clustered together. Smiths, carpenters, workers in leather, bakers, butchers, tailors, and numerous other craftsmen lived there, having built their huts side by side for the safety that lies in numbers; and thus the Feudal Castle was often the nucleus of a Feudal Town.

12. In their **manner of life** the Normans were more temperate and refined than the English. They had only two regular meals: dinner, taken by the higher classes at nine in the morning; and supper, about four or five in the afternoon. But a meal was often taken in private before going to rest. The Normans introduced the general use of the chief flesh meats

found on our tables;—a change which is curiously illustrated in our language, where we find the words denoting the living animal, *ox*, *sheep*, *calf*, *pig*, to be English; while the words applied to the flesh used as food, *beef*, *mutton*, *veal*, *pork*, are Norman or French in their origin.

13. The banquets of this period were served with much state by attendants called sewers, who were under the direction of higher domestics, carrying white rods of office. The table was covered with varieties of meat, game, and pastry; and with cakes called by different names, such as wastel-cakes and simnel-bread. The higher Normans drank foreign wines, and closed their revelry with a draught called the grace-cup. The lower classes cheered their hearts with home-brewed ale.

14. A fixed etiquette was now observed at table, and much ridicule fell on those who neglected its rules. Thus we read of an Englishman who was laughed at by the Normans, because he dried his hands on a napkin, instead of waving them in the air until the moisture had evaporated. The sleeping rooms of the great contained rude wooden beds with coarse coverlets; but the mass of the people were obliged to content themselves with straw and sheep-skins.

15. In **dress**, as in food, the Normans introduced many novelties. The gallant of this time, closely shaven, with long hair curling on the shoulders, wore a loose doublet reaching half way down the leg, girt with a gold-embroidered belt. Over this was a short cloak, richly furred and laced with gold. The shoes were the strangest article of dress. They had very long toes, pointed and twisted like the horns of a ram, and sometimes fastened with chains of gold or silver to the knees. A bonnet of velvet, and long hose fastened to the doublet by very many strings, called *points*, completed the costume.

16. Many characters, strange to us, but illustrative of the social history of the time, might have been seen among the Normans;—the Minstrel, with his harp slung on his shoulder, a plate of silver on his arm, and a chain around his neck bearing the *wrest* or tuning-key; the Fool or Jester, with his cap and bells, his dress of motley, and his stockings, one red and one yellow; the Palmer, or Pilgrim from the Holy Land, with his hat bordered with cockle or scallop shells, with sandals on his

bare feet, and carrying a staff shod with iron with a palm-branch on the top; the English Serf, clad in untanned hide with sandals of boar-skin, and leathern bandage rolled half way up the leg, wearing around his neck a collar of brass, engraved with his master's name; and the Jew, with yellow cap high and square, whose nation, reaching England during the Conqueror's reign, though abhorred, scouted, and plundered by all, continued to drive their trade in money-lending until the days of the first Edward.

17. The Norman ladies wore a kirtle or under-gown of silk, over which hung a loose wide-sleeved robe reaching the ground. The Clergy, whose professional mark of distinction was a heavy gold signet-ring, often vied with the gallants of the day in the splendour and fashion of their dress.

18. The **coinage** was little changed. Some new foreign coins came into use, of which the chief were the merk, worth 13s. 4d.; and the zechin or sequin, an Italian coin, worth about 9s. 5d., brought into use by the Crusades.

19. The Norman **tongue**—rich in words relating to war, chivalry, law, and the sports of the field—being the language of the court, speedily became that of the church, the halls of justice, and the schools, where, we are told, the boys construed their Latin lessons in French. The English language, like the race that spoke it, made little progress during those days of bondage. Ever since the Conquest, a struggle for mastery had been going on between the English and the Norman languages. About the time of Magna Charta a reäction began in favour of the former, which ended in its triumph.

20. **Romances**[1]—at this time the popular form of literature in Europe—were introduced into England by the Normans. They described the adventures of great warriors;—Alexander, Arthur, and Charlemagne were the favourites. These were represented as feudal knights, and made the heroes of wild adventures,—slaying dragons and giants, storming enchanted castles, setting free beautiful ladies, and doing other wondrous deeds.

---

[1] *Romances.*—So called because originally written in one of the *Romance* languages, as the corrupted forms of the ancient *Roman* tongue (that is Latin) were called,—Italian, French, and Spanish.

21. Surnames were brought into general use by the Normans. They were derived from various sources, of which the most fruitful were personal qualities, as Armstrong, Whitehead, Swift; and occupations or trades, as Smith, Falconer, Taylor, Miller. Many were formed from Christian names by adding the Danish *son*, as Wilson; the English *ing*, as Clavering; the Celtic *Mac* or *O*, as MacDonald, O'Connell; or the Norman *Fitz*, as Fitz-Gerald.

---

22. LEADING AUTHORS UNDER THE NORMAN KINGS.

THE ENGLISH CHRONICLE.—This work, begun by Plegmund of Canterbury, was compiled from the registers kept in the monasteries—passing events from Alfred's time to the year 1154 are noticed.

GEOFFREY OF MONMOUTH, a Welsh monk—wrote a *History of the Britons* in Latin. This work contains the Celtic legends of Arthur and his Knights of the Round Table. Died in 1154.

WILLIAM OF MALMESBURY, (1067–1143)—author of *History of the English Kings* to 1120, and *Historia Novella*, extending the narrative to 1142.

HENRY OF HUNTINGDON, chronicler—died 1168.

QUESTIONS.—1. Through what different grades had a knight to pass? What was the "vigil"?

2. How was the knight clad? What was on his helmet? What on his shield? What was his chief weapon? What other arms were used?

3. Who were the Templars? How were the Crusaders of different countries distinguished?

4. What was the chief sport of chivalry? Where was it held? What were at each end of the lists? In what were the smiths occupied? Who proclaimed the titles of the knights? By what was the proclamation followed?

5. Who stood in the middle of the lists? How was the nature of the combat decided? Describe the encounter.

6. How long did the sport last? What were the privileges of the victor? To what was the second day often devoted?

7. By what was the tilting followed? What judicial contest resembled the tournament?

8. When was the Grand Assize instituted? By what court was the public business of the realm transacted?

9. For what purpose were Norman castles built? What is the distinctive feature of their architecture?

10. Describe the keep.

11. By what was the whole castle surrounded? What was the barbican? Where did the craftsmen live? Of what was the feudal castle thus often the nucleus?

12. In what did the Norman manner of life differ from the English? How many regular meals had the Normans? What meats were introduced by the Normans? How is this change illustrated in our language?

13. Describe a Norman banquet. What was the drink of the lower orders?

14. What incident shows the attention which the Normans paid to etiquette? What were the beds of the mass of the people?

15. Describe the dress of a Norman gallant.

16. Describe the minstrel—the jester—the palmer—the serf—the Jew.

17. Describe the dress of Norman ladies.

18. What new coins were introduced by the Normans?

19. In what words was the Norman tongue rich? Where was it adopted? What was the state of the English tongue? When did that tongue begin to regain the mastery?

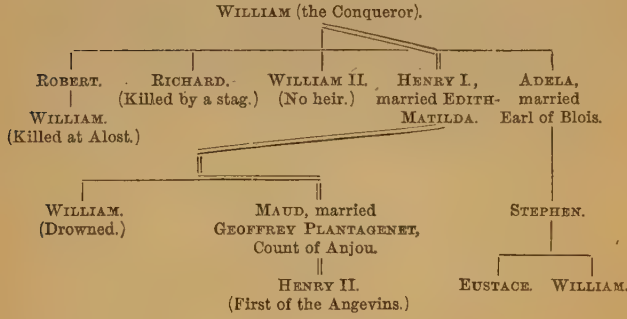
20. What were at this time the popular literary works in Europe? Who introduced them into England? Who were their favourite heroes?

21. What names were brought into general use by the Normans? Whence were they derived? How were surnames formed from Christian names?

22. When did the "English Chronicle" close? What did Geoffrey of Monmouth write? What did William of Malmesbury write? When did Henry of Huntingdon die?

GENEALOGICAL TREE

CONNECTING THE NORMAN KINGS AND THE ANGEVINS.



CHAPTER VII.

THE CROWN AGAINST THE CHURCH—II. BECKET.

1. The House of Anjou—Henry II.
2. Rise of Becket.
3. His Mode of Living.
4. His Policy as Archbishop.
5. The Constitutions of Clarendon.
6. The Reconciliation.
7. Murder of Becket.
8. State of Ireland.
9. Strongbow's Expedition.
10. Homage from Ireland.
11. Henry's Penance.
12. Homage from Scotland.

1. *HENRY II.*[1]—A new dynasty begins with Henry II. He was the first of the Angevin[2] Kings, being son of Geoffrey Plantagenet,[3] Count of Anjou. Young Henry had a brilliant prospect before him. In France he held some of the fairest provinces, all the western coast owning his sway. Along with his Queen, Eleanor, he received the crown of England at Westminster. During several years, he was engaged in redressing the evils which had sprung from the turbulence of Stephen's reign. He issued new coins; drove from England the foreign hirelings, who had swarmed into the land during the civil war; and—hardest task of all—set himself to destroy the castles of the barons.

Dec. 1154 A.D.

2. The story of **Thomas Becket** (or, à Becket) fills nearly one half of the reign. His father was Gilbert Becket, a Port-reeve, or, as we should now say, Mayor, of London. To his mother, Robese, a pious woman, he was indebted for his early training in religious principles and in good works. While in Italy, young Becket obtained from the Pope a bull forbidding the coronation of Eustace, Stephen's son. This, which gained for him the favour of Henry, may be regarded as the first step of his preferment. By the advice of the aged Theobald, Archbishop of Canterbury, Henry appointed him Chancellor, and tutor to his son, and he speedily became chief favourite.

3. He outshone even the King by his magnificence. He had in his train thousands of knights, and lived in the height of the luxury which the times afforded. His table was free to all: the

[1] *Henry II.*—Son of Geoffrey Plantagenet, Count of Anjou, and of Maud, daughter of Henry I. Married Eleanor of Poitou and Aquitaine. Reigned 35 years.

[2] *Angevin.*—Of the House of Anjou.

[3] *Plantagenet.*—This name is derived from *Planta genista*, the Latin term for the shrub we call broom; which, as an emblem of humility, was worn by the first Earl of Anjou when a pilgrim to the Holy Land.

uninvited guests were often so many that there were not seats for all, and numbers sat on the floor upon clean straw or rushes.

4. On the death of Theobald, Becket became Archbishop of Canterbury, then, as it is now, the highest dignity in the Church. At once he changed his conduct. He resigned his Chancellorship, became as frugal in his style of living as he had formerly been dissolute and luxurious, and exchanged his gay train of knights for the society of a few monks.

5. From this time he began to lose the favour of the King. Dislike deepened into hatred; hatred burst into open quarrel. The rights of the clergy formed the immediate subject of contention. Becket, though of Norman parentage, was the first man born on English soil who obtained the primacy under the Normans. He therefore enlisted the sympathy of all his countrymen, English as well as Norman, in his struggle against the royal power. Henry required that priests accused of crime should be tried by the royal judges. Becket opposed him, maintaining the right of priests to answer for their conduct only to the courts of the Church. A council held at Clarendon in Wilts, where the articles known as the **Constitutions of Clarendon** were enacted, decided in Henry's favour. Becket yielded at first; but the struggle was resumed, and he fled to France to escape ruin. **1164** A.D.

6. After six years he was reconciled to Henry, by Pope Alexander III. and Louis of France. Returning to England, he found the domains of his see forfeited. Henry seemed unwilling to restore them, and this renewed the quarrel. Becket then excommunicated all who held lands belonging to the See of Canterbury.

7. The King, who was in Normandy when the news of this reached him, happened to say, "Is there none of the cowards eating my bread who will free me from this turbulent priest?" Four knights, who heard him, took an oath to slay Becket; and, travelling to England, they burst into the Cathedral at Canterbury, where they cruelly murdered the prelate, scattering his brains on the steps of the altar. The scene of the murder, and the saintly reputation of the victim, deepened the horror with which the people looked upon this crime. The tomb of Becket became a resort of pilgrims. **1170** A.D.

8. One of the chief events of Henry's reign was **the invasion of Ireland.** The island was then divided into six provinces,—

Leinster, Desmond or South Munster, Thomond or North Munster, Connaught, Ulster, and Meath; the last being specially attached to the dignity of *Ard-riagh*, or supreme monarch, which was then claimed by the O'Connors, Kings of Connaught. The ports were in the hands of Ostmen, or Eastmen, descended from the Danish pirates, and were very prosperous, the commerce of Dublin rivalling that of London. But the mass of the people lived by feeding cattle. Their clothing was spun from raw wool. Their houses were built of wood and wicker-work. Like the Welsh, they excelled in the music of the harp.

9. A feud arose between **Dermot Macmorrogh,** King of Leinster, and O'Rourke, Prince of Breffni or Leitrim. Dermot had carried off O'Rourke's wife; but she had been recovered by the aid of O'Connor, the Ard-riagh. War ensued, and Dermot was driven from the island. From Henry he obtained leave to enlist soldiers in England. Richard le Clare, Earl of Pembroke, (surnamed Strongbow,) Robert Fitzstephen, and Maurice Fitzgerald accepted his terms. Fitzstephen landed at Bannow Bay (Co. Wexford) with 40 knights and 300 archers, and Wexford fell before him. Fitzgerald followed.

1171 A.D. Then came **Strongbow** with 1,200 men. Waterford and Dublin were carried by storm; and no efforts of the Irish could dislodge the invaders from the fortresses with which they rapidly secured their conquests.

10. Henry then crossed by the usual route, from Milford

Haven to Waterford; and at Dublin he received the homage of the chieftains. The princes of Ulster alone disdained submission. On his return to England, Henry appointed Prince John, a boy of twelve, to the lordship of the island. The foolish boy and his Norman train mocked the Irish chieftains as they came to pay homage, insulting them by plucking their beards. Such treatment estranged the natives, and their revolts became fiercer and more frequent. These events are called the Conquest of Ireland, but the final subjugation of the island was of much later date.

1172 A.D.

11. Four years after Becket's murder, Henry did penance at his tomb. Walking barefoot through the city of Canterbury, he threw himself on the pavement before the shrine, and was there scourged with knotted cords.

12. Immediately afterwards he received news of the capture of **William the Lion**, King of Scotland, who had been surprised in a mist near Alnwick Castle (Northumberland) by Glanville, the greatest of Henry's generals. This the King exultingly ascribed to the mercy of reconciled Heaven, deeming it, according to the notions of the age, the direct fruit of his penance. William was not released until he had acknowledged his kingdom a fief, and himself a vassal, of the English Crown;—a forced submission which it is important to remember, for on it Edward I. founded his claim to the lordship of Scotland.

13. A law by which Henry substituted **scutage**, or shield-money, for the personal service of the barons, gave its first serious blow to Feudalism. It was followed in 1181 by the **Assize of Arms**, which required every freeman to serve in defence of the King and the country. Henry also established six **Circuits of Justice**, with three itinerant judges in each; but these judges abused their power, and the King reduced the number to five in all. About this time **London** became the capital, the civil wars of Stephen's reign having laid Winchester in ruins.

QUESTIONS.—1. What dynasty begins with Henry II.? Whose son was he? What part of France owned his sway? What occupied him for several years? What was the hardest part of the task? 2. Whose story fills nearly one half of the reign? Who was Becket's father? What did he gain from his mother? How did he gain Henry's favour? To what offices did the King appoint him?

3. In what style did Becket live at that time?

4. When did Becket become Archbishop? How did he then change his conduct?

5. About what did he quarrel with the King? Whose sympathy did Becket enlist? Why? What did Becket maintain, in opposition to the King? Where did a council decide the matter? What are its articles called? In whose favour were they? Where did Becket take refuge?

6. When did he return? What renewed the quarrel?

7. What hasty words did Henry utter? What effect had they? Where did the murder take place? What did Becket's tomb become?

8. What was one of the chief events of Henry's reign? Into what provinces was Ireland then divided? Who was supreme monarch? What was the state of commerce? By whom was it carried on? How did the mass of the people live?

9. What led to the interference of the English in Ireland? Who accepted Dermot's terms? What places did the English capture?

10. Where did Henry receive the homage of the chieftains? When? Who was appointed lord of the island? How were the natives estranged?

11. When did Henry do penance for Becket's murder? How?

12. What news arrived immediately afterwards? On what condition was William released?

13. What was the effect of the law of scutage? By what was it followed? What plan was formed for dispensing justice in the country? What led to London being made the capital?

CHAPTER VIII.

ENGLAND SEVERED FROM FRANCE.

1. Disaffection of the French Barons.
2. The Royal Crusader.
3. The Third Crusade.
4. The Crusade Abandoned.
5. Richard's Captivity.
6. His Ransom and Release.
7. Intrigues of John and Philip.
8. French Wars.
9. Social Effects of the Crusades.
10. King John and Prince Arthur.
11. Loss of the French Possessions.

1. The powerful French Barons who owed allegiance to the Counts of Anjou, could not be expected long to continue their allegiance when the Counts became Kings of England. Even had they been willing to do so, the arrangement must have been repugnant to the King of France, who was their natural liege lord. Before Henry's death, disaffection and intrigue began the inevitable work. The discovery that his own sons had been caught in the fatal meshes broke the old Monarch's heart. Richard, whom he had made Lord of Aquitaine, rebelled against his father, and paid homage to the French King; and the shock of finding his favourite son, John, mentioned in a list of rebels whom he was asked to pardon, threw him into a fever, of which he died at Chinon (Touraine). The Church of Fontevraud (Anjou) received his

1189 A.D.

remains, over which his son Richard is said to have wept bitter tears of remorse.

2. *RICHARD I.*[1]—Crossing without delay to England, Richard received his father's crown at Westminster. But to rule England and half of France was not his ambition. He burned to win glory on the plains of Palestine, and his earliest measures were undertaken to raise money for a **Crusade.** To this he devoted the hoards of his father; for this purpose he sold the honours and offices in his gift, and gave up for 10,000 merks the homage wrested by his father from the Scottish King.

3. Richard of England and Philip Augustus of France then mustered their soldiers, to the number of 100,000 men, on the plains of **Vezelai** in Burgundy. It was the **Third Crusade.** At Lyons the Kings parted. Owing to various delays on the way, nearly twelve months passed before the English King reached **Acre,** then the centre of the war. Philip had been for some time in the camp before the walls, but the presence of the Lion-heart at once struck terror into the defenders. Four days after Richard's arrival, the gates were thrown open.

July 1, **1190** A.D.

June 8, **1191** A.D.

[1] *Richard I.*—Son of Henry II. Mrd. Berengaria of Navarre. Reigned 10 years.

4. Jealousy of Richard now caused Philip, on pretence of ill health, to return to France. Before his departure, he swore not to invade the dominions of Richard. From Acre Richard led the Crusaders to **Jaffa**, inflicting upon Saladin, who strove to impede the march, a severe defeat. At last the walls of Jerusalem rose before the soldiers of the Cross; but their ranks were so thinned, and their energies so weakened, that Richard was forced to turn away. He took leave of the sacred shore, commending it to the mercy of Heaven.

Oct. 9, **1192** A.D.

5. Wrecked on the northern shore of the Gulf of Venice, Richard resolved to cross the Continent in the dress of a pilgrim, under the name of Hugh the merchant. He reached Erperg near Vienna in safety; but there the imprudence of his page, who went into the town wearing gloves—then a mark of the highest rank—betrayed him into the hands of Leopold, **Duke of Austria**, whom he had thrashed in the town of Acre. At first he was confined in the Castle of Tyernsteign, but the Emperor, Henry VI., purchased him for £60,000, and flung him into a castle in the Tyrol.

6. There is a legend that a French minstrel, named Blondel, discovered the place of Richard's captivity. Wandering through the land, he happened near a grated window to strike his harp to an air of Richard's own composing. The strain was answered from within, and he knew it was the King of England who sang. The secret of Richard's prison was really disclosed by a letter from the Emperor to Philip of France. After much debate, a ransom was fixed: 100,000 merks were wrung from the English people, and Richard was set free. He had been absent four years, of which fourteen months were spent in prison.

1194 A.D.

7. As yet the King had spent only four months in England. He now spent little more than two. When he recovered his freedom, he found his crown of England and his French possessions equally in danger. His brother **John**, who had driven into exile the Regent, William of Longchamp, aimed at the one; Philip of France desired the others,—and this, perhaps, was the true cause of his desertion at Acre. John's party melted away before his brother's presence, and he

humbly sued for pardon, which was granted at the intercession of his mother.

8. The rest of Richard's reign was occupied by wars in France, waged in defence of that claim of English supremacy there which his youthful rebellion had first endangered. These wars pressed heavily on the English people. In two years he drew from the country £1,100,000. He received his death-wound in a mean quarrel. A treasure had been found on the estate of a vassal. Richard received part, but demanded all. Being refused, he besieged the Castle of **Chaluz,**[1] from the walls of which an arrow struck him on the shoulder. The head was extracted by an unskilful surgeon, and mortification set in. The castle being taken, the archer, Gourdon, was brought a captive to the dying Monarch's bed; but Richard pardoned him. In spite of this, the unhappy youth was flayed alive. Richard was buried at the feet of his father in Fontevraud:[2] his heart was bequeathed to the citizens of Rouen. **1199** A.D.

9. The social effects of the Crusades now began to be felt. They excited a somewhat kindlier feeling among the nations leagued in a common cause; they opened the East to commerce, and poured its riches into England; they drained the country of those restless spirits, whose broils convulsed society unceasingly; lastly, and of most importance, they weakened the power of the nobles, whose estates began to pass into the hands of the wealthy commoners, they elevated the standing of the middle classes, and they laid the foundation of those changes by which the House of Commons was afterwards established.

10. *JOHN.*[3]—Richard, who left no heir, bequeathed his throne to his brother John. A council held at Northampton confirmed the choice, and John was crowned at Westminster. He was not the lineal heir, for his elder brother, Geoffrey, had left a son,—**Arthur, Duke of Bretagne,** now aged twelve years. This boy's claim was supported by the French King; but at the Castle of Mirebeau in Poitou he fell into the hands of

[1] *Chaluz.*—Near Limoges. (See *Map*, p. 169.)

[2] *Fontevraud.*—In Anjou.

[3] *John.*—Son of Henry II. Married (1) Hadwisa of Gloucester; (2) Isabella of Angoulême. Reigned 17 years.

John, who cast him into the dungeons of Rouen. Here all trace of him was lost. Some said that John slew him with his own hand. Arthur's sister, Eleanor, called the Maid of Bretagne, another rival, was imprisoned within Bristol Castle till her death.

11. John, having divorced his first wife, married Isabella of Angoulême, the affianced wife of the Earl of Marche; **1204** and this, coupled with the death of Arthur, gave his A.D. French subjects a fair excuse for transferring their allegiance to the French King. In a few years he was stripped of Normandy, Anjou, and all the French possessions of the English Crown.

QUESTIONS. — 1. Whose allegiance were the Angevin Kings of England likely to lose? Who had an interest in its being withdrawn? When did disaffection and intrigue begin? Who lent themselves to the work? What effect had this on Henry? How did Richard offend him? What caused his death?

2. Who succeeded? What was Richard's ambition? How did he obtain money for this object?

3. Who joined Richard in this Crusade? Where did they muster their soldiers? What time elapsed before Richard reached Acre? What effect had his arrival?

4. What led Philip to return to France? Where did Richard lead the Crusaders? Whom did he defeat? Why had he to abandon the work?

5. What befell him on his way home? What led to his being discovered? Who ultimately got possession of him?

6. What is the legend about the discovery of Richard's prison? How was the secret really disclosed? What ransom was paid for his release? How long had he been absent?

7. What time did he spend in England on his return? Who had been aiming at the crown of England? Who at his French possessions? What dissipated John's party?

8. In what was the rest of Richard's reign spent? Where did he receive his death-wound? What was the origin of the quarrel? How did he treat the archer who had wounded him? How was he afterwards treated? Where was Richard buried?

9. Mention the chief social effects of the Crusades.

10. Who succeeded Richard? Who was the lineal heir? What became of him? What became of his sister?

11. Who was John's second wife? What did his conduct give his French subjects an excuse for doing? Of what was he in a few years deprived?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. **1183.**—A struggle which had lasted twenty-four years, between the Emperor of Germany and the republics of the north of Italy, was terminated by the **Peace of Constance.**

2. 1187.—Jerusalem was taken from the Crusaders by the Sultan Saladin.

3. 1191.—The **Teutonic Order** of knights was founded, to tend the sick and wounded in the camp before Acre.

4. 1195.—The **Fourth Crusade** was undertaken by the Emperor Henry VI., whose real object was to secure Sicily, as a means of reaching the Eastern Empire. Having secured Sicily, the Crusaders proceeded to the East, and took Beyrout; but Henry's death, in 1197, put an end to the Crusade.

5. 1198.—The **Fifth Crusade** was preached by Pope Innocent III. Count Baldwin of Flanders, its leader, took Constantinople in 1203, and again in 1204, when he was made Emperor over one-fourth of the East. He was made prisoner by the King of Bulgaria in 1206, and was never heard of afterwards. The Crusaders never reached Jerusalem.

6. 1200.—About this time the University of Paris (the first in Europe) was founded.

7. 1213.—The **Albigenses** (so called from their stronghold Albiga, in Languedoc) under Count Raymond of Toulouse and the King of Aragon, were defeated by Simon de Montfort. The crusade against the Albigenses, as well as that against the Waldenses, was sanctioned by Pope Innocent III. Though Count Raymond the elder submitted, the persecution was continued. In 1210, de Montfort ravaged Languedoc. The crusade was joined by Prince Louis of France in 1215. In 1229, Count Raymond VII. submitted; but the complete subjugation of Languedoc was not effected till 1242.

QUESTIONS.—1. What did the Peace of Constance settle? Its date?—2. Who took Jerusalem in 1187?—3. What was the origin of the Teutonic Order of knights?—4. Who undertook the Fourth Crusade? What was his real object? What did he accomplish? What put an end to the Crusade?—5. Who preached the Fifth Crusade? Who was its leader? What conquest did he make? What was his end?—6. Which was the first university in Europe? When was it founded?—7. Who defeated the Albigenses in 1213? Who was their leader? Who sanctioned the crusade against them? Who ravaged Languedoc in 1210? When was it completely subdued?

CHAPTER IX.

MAGNA CHARTA.

1. John's Quarrel with the Pope.
2. The Interdict.
3. John's Submission.
4. A French War.
5. The New National Spirit.
6. Stephen Langton.
7. John Temporizes.
8. John Refuses Concession.
9. John Promises Concession.
10. Runnymede.
11. The Great Charter.
12. Its Confirmations.

1. THE great struggle between **the Crown and the Barons,** which resulted in the foundation of English liberty, sprang directly out of that quarrel between the Crown and the Church

which had disturbed England ever since the days of Rufus. The See of Canterbury having fallen vacant, the King nominated John de Gray, Bishop of Norwich; the Pope, Innocent III., appointed Stephen Langton. The monks sided with the Pope; but John, defying the Pontiff, drove them from their abbeys and seized their treasures, because they had rejected his minister and favourite, De Gray.

2. The Pope retaliated by putting England under an **Interdict.** For six years there was no worship in the land; the churches were closed; their silent bells rusted in the steeples; the dead were cast without prayer into the earth; the statues of the saints were shrouded in black. The people groaned under the curse; but the King, unmoved, visited Ireland and Wales, exacting homage and imposing tribute.

1208 A.D.

3. The Pope at last called upon Philip of France to dethrone the impious monarch; and then John yielded. Well aware that he could not trust one of the 60,000 warriors who marched under his banner, he took an oath of fealty to the Pope, agreeing to pay to the Roman coffers 1,000 merks as yearly rent for his kingdoms of England and Ireland.

4. Philip, who was at Boulogne ready to invade England, proposed to cross the Strait notwithstanding John's submission to the Pope. Ferrand, Earl of Flanders, objected; and the enraged Monarch ravaged Flanders to the walls of Ghent. The French fleet, however, was scattered by William Longsword, Earl of Salisbury, who commanded the navy of England. John, in the flush of this success, sailed to Poitou; but his hopes were destroyed by the defeat of his allies, the Emperor Otho and Earl Ferrand, at **Bouvines.**[1] He then obtained a truce for five years.

1214 A.D.

5. A number of men from Anjou and Poitou, who had been allied with King John, sought an asylum in England. Adroit and insinuating, they were received with favour at the Court, and speedily supplanted the old aristocracy in the good graces of the King. He distributed among them all the offices and favours at his disposal. He married them to the rich heiresses

[1] *Bouvines*, 70 miles south-east of Calais.

under his wardship, according to the feudal law, and made them guardians of rich orphans under age. The new courtiers, by their exactions, soon rendered themselves as odious to the English citizens as they were to the nobles of Norman origin; and thus the two races that inhabited England were brought together by a common feeling. Here we may date the birth of a new national spirit, binding all who were born on English soil.

6. That very **Stephen Langton,** Cardinal, and Archbishop of Canterbury, whose nomination to that see John had opposed, appeared as the chief champion of English freedom in this struggle between people and King. Born in Lincolnshire or Devonshire, he grafted on a stem of English growth the polish and subtlety which could then be acquired only at Paris and at Rome. At a great council, held in St. Paul's in 1213, he laid before the assembled prelates and barons an old charter, granted by Henry I., but swept utterly out of memory by the storms of a changeful century. Here was a base of operations for statesmen who were destined to lay the great foundation-stone of the Constitution. On this forgotten fragment the Great Charter was to rise. Meeting in the Abbey of St. Edmundsbury[1] on November 20th (the saint's day), the confederate patriots swore solemnly on the high altar that if the King refused their just demands, they would not sheathe the sword until they had wrested from him a charter under his own seal granting what they asked.

7. When, in the first week of January 1215, a stern band entered John's presence and laid their demands before him, his pale lips could hardly ask for time to consider the petition. Easter week being fixed for the giving of a final answer, the base King set himself during the intervening months to throw up what defences he could against the encroachments of his menacing nobles. At the foot of St. Peter's Chair he cast the privilege claimed by his predecessors of electing abbots and bishops, thinking thus to bribe the clergy and the Pope. And he placed himself more securely yet under the Church's wing by sol-

[1] *Bury St. Edmunds* is the chief town of West Suffolk, and lies on the river Larke. The ruins of a magnificent abbey still adorn the town.

emnly swearing that he would lead a crusading army to the Holy Land.

8. Easter week came. The King lay **at Oxford.** Marching from Stamford to Brackley,[1] the barons met Langton and two earls, by whom they sent forward to the King a list of the needed reforms. Langton read the parchment in the hearing of the King. Thereupon John, at whose elbow stood Pandulf the Pope's Envoy, flamed into a furious rage. "And why do they not demand my crown also?" he cried; adding, with an oath, "I will not grant them liberties that will make me a slave."

9. He might have spared his fury; for brave soldiers, steel in hand, were resolved to take what his mean heart could not bear to give. A failure at Northampton did not daunt them. Bedford gates flew open. And word from **London told** them how its mighty heart throbbed with delight at their resolution. On Sunday the 24th of May, through open gates and silent streets they entered the capital, while the citizens were at church. This awakened John from his dream of folly. He saw but seven knights who lingered by his falling throne. There was not a moment to be lost. A promise must be made, and an oath sworn. So with a smiling face he bade Pembroke go to London, and tell the barons that on a certain day and at a certain place he would grant their full demands.

10. There is by the Thames, not far from Staines,[2] a narrow strip of green meadow-land, which bears the name of **Runnymede.**[3] That little field witnessed, in the thirteenth century,

[1] *Stamford,* lying on the Welland partly in Lincolnshire and partly in Northamptonshire, was one of the 'Five Burghs" of the Danes. *Brackley,* in the south of Northamptonshire, lies near one of the head streams of the Ouse.

[2] *Staines* is a market-town of Middlesex, situated on the left bank of the Thames, about 17 miles from London. (See the *Map.*)

[3] This place is called in the Great Charter "Runing mede inter Windlesorum et Staines." By some the phrase

as great a sight as England ever saw. Pouring, with the rising sun, from the gates of Staines, a long cavalcade of barons, headed by Fitzwalter, their general, wound across the field, and halted in the meadow beside the silver Thames. A smaller party, including the King, Pandulf, Pembroke, and the Master of the English Templars, rode down from Windsor Castle to the appointed place. And there, with the faintest show of objection, John took pen in hand, and affixed his royal signature to *Magna Charta*—**the Great Char-** June 15, 1215 A.D.

KING JOHN SIGNING THE MAGNA CHARTA.

ter of English freedom—his heart belying what his hand had traced. Then riding home to Windsor, he flung himself on the

is said to mean the "meadow of council;" but it more probably derived its name from a stream that passed through it.

ground, gnashing with his teeth, and cursing the Charter whose ink was scarcely dry.

11. In this famous charter, which has been well summarized as "a solemn protest against the evil of arbitrary arrest and arbitrary taxation," the rights of the clergy and of the barons are laid down with unmistakable distinctness. But its most striking feature lies in its provisions for **the mass of the people.** Even the *villain*, who ploughed the fields in coarse leathern dress, was not forgotten. The property of the baron and of the citizen was shielded by an article which said, "No scutage nor aid shall be imposed on the kingdom, *except by the Great Council of the realm*, unless it be to redeem the King's body, to make his eldest son a knight, and once to marry his eldest daughter; and that to be a reasonable aid: and in like manner shall it be concerning the *Tallage* and Aids of the city of London, and of other cities which from this time shall have their liberties; and that the city of London shall fully have all its liberties and free customs as well by land as water." The person of the freeman was thus protected: "No freeman shall be taken or imprisoned, or be disseised of his freehold, or liberties, or free customs, or be outlawed or exiled, or be any other wise destroyed; nor will we pass upon him, nor send upon him, *but by lawful judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land.* We will sell to no man, we will not deny or delay to any man, justice or right." The holding of the freeman, the goods of the merchant, the waggon of the villain were not to be torn from their owners.

12. Such was the nature of that remarkable document, in whose completion Langton's pen and Fitzwalter's sword had about an equal share. The Latin bears in every line the distinct stamp of a clear business brain,—the sharp, incisive, far-seeing sweep of a lawyer's practised eye. "Thirty-two times," says Sir Edward Coke, "have the Great Charter and the Charter of the Forests[1] been confirmed by Acts of Parliament;"—a thing not to be wondered at, for Truth, Justice, and Freedom are of slow growth in the history of nations, needing an occasional storm to scatter decaying leaves, and to strike roots with a firmer grip in the earth.

[1] *Charter of the Forests*, first signed by Henry III. in 1217.

QUESTIONS.—1. In what did the struggle between the Crown and the Barons result? Out of what did it spring? What were the circumstances of that dispute?

2. How did the Pope retaliate? What was the effect of the Interdict? How did the King act?

3. To whom did the Pope commit the punishment of John? What effect had this? What agreement did John make with the Pope?

4. What did Philip propose to do? Why did he ravage Flanders? What led John to invade France? What destroyed his hopes of success? What truce did he then obtain?

5. Who supplanted the old aristocracy at Court? How did the King favour them? Who besides the nobles disliked these foreigners? What was the result?

6. Who was the chief champion of English freedom in the struggle that followed? What document did he lay before the council? Of what was this charter the foundation? What resolution did the patriots form at St. Edmundsbury?

7. When did they present their demands to John? Under whose protection did John place himself?

8. When did the barons go to John for his answer? What did he say when he heard their demands?

9. Where did the barons suffer a reverse? What town threw its gates open to them? Which side did London take? What effect did that produce on John? What message did he send to the barons?

10. Where did John and the barons meet? What deed was there signed? What did John do immediately afterwards?

11. How has the Great Charter been summarized? What is its most striking feature? How was the property of the baron and the citizen protected? How was the person of the freeman protected?

12. Who were chiefly instrumental in obtaining the Charter? How often has it been confirmed?

CHAPTER X.

THE CROWN AGAINST THE BARONS.

1. John's Revenge.
2. Louis of France.
3. Henry III.
4. The Charter of Forests.
5. Defeat of Louis.
6. Hubert de Burgh.
7. Rival Parties.
8. Encroachments of the Church—Fall of De Burgh.
9. Influx of Foreigners.
10. Renewed French War.
11. Relations with Scotland.
12. The Barons' War.
13. The Provisions of Oxford.
14. The Mise of Lewes.
15. Leicester's Parliament.
16. Death of Montfort.
17. Death of Henry III.
18. Edward in Palestine.
19. Coronation of the King and Queen.

1. JOHN had been all courtesy and kindness at Runnymede, but the first tidings the barons heard thereafter were, that the tyrant, having raised an army of mercenaries, was laying waste the land. The sky was red with the blaze of burning towns and corn-fields: the people fled to the forests and the hills.

2. In despair, the barons called **Louis of France,** who had married the niece of John, to take the crown. Louis landed at

Sandwich, and John was marching to meet him; but on the shores of the Wash he saw his money, the crown jewels, and the baggage of his army swept away by the rising tide. His agitation brought on a fever. He died at Newark Castle, and was buried at Worcester.[1]

Oct. 19, 1216 A.D.

3. *HENRY III.*[2]—Louis held London and the southern counties; but the barons, whose feeling changed on the death of John, rallied around young Henry, who was at once crowned at Gloucester, with a plain golden circlet, for the crown had been lost in the waters of the Wash. All true Englishmen were at the same time commanded to wear around the head for a month a white fillet, in honour of the coronation. The King being only ten years old, the Earl of Pembroke was appointed Regent.

1216 A.D.

4. The first act of the new reign was to confirm the Great Charter, its sixty-one chapters having been reduced to forty-two. In the following year it was again confirmed, and the **Charter of Forests** was added. The latter curtailed the extent of the royal forest-lands, and mitigated the severe penalties by which they were protected.

5. Louis did not leave the island without a struggle for the crown which had been almost in his grasp; but he was forced to abandon the enterprise by a complete defeat sustained at **Lincoln.** At the same time his fleet was destroyed off Calais by Hubert de Burgh, who caused powdered quicklime to be flung into the air, so that the wind bore it into the eyes of the French. The English sailors took advantage of the disorder thus produced to cut the rigging of the enemy's ships.

May 19, 1217 A.D.

6. Pembroke died in the second year of his regency. He was succeeded by **Hubert de Burgh,** the justiciary,[3] who, with the aid of Langton the primate, set himself vigorously to curb the feudal barons, and restore order in

1219 A.D.

---

[1] During John's reign London Bridge was finished; letters of credit were first used in England; and the custom of annually electing a Lord Mayor and two Sheriffs of London was begun, Henry Fitzalwyn being the first *Lord* Mayor. The fisheries were now very profitable, the salmon of the Dee and the herring of the Sandwich shore being especially prized.

[2] *Henry III.*—Son of John. Married Eleanor of Provençe. Reigned 56 years.

[3] *Justiciary.*—Chief-justice or Judge.

the country. Pandulph, the Papal legate, continued for some time to reside at the English Court, and to claim for Rome that supremacy which John's submission had recognized; but Langton ere long obtained his withdrawal.

7. Henry was declared of age at seventeen, and began to reign in person. His sympathies were entirely with the foreign party in his Court, which desired the restoration of English influence in France. Advantage was taken of this by the popular or home party to increase its power. When the King demanded a subsidy for a French expedition in 1225, it was granted on condition that he should confirm the Great Charter a third time: thus early was the constitutional principle introduced of making votes of supply depend on concessions to the people. 1223 A.D. 1225 A.D.

8. The French expedition failed, and Henry cast the blame on De Burgh, who was known to be averse to interference in continental affairs. That minister's difficulties were further increased by the death in 1228 of Archbishop Langton, to whom, more than to any one else, England is indebted, both for the Great Charter and for the custom of requiring its repeated confirmation. After the Primate's death, the exactions of Rome grew more and more intolerable. The Pope claimed the revenues of all vacant sees, and the land swarmed with Italian clergy. The indignation of the barons and the people was aroused; a wide-spread conspiracy was formed, and riots occurred in several towns. De Burgh was known to sympathize with the conspiracy. The Papal party accused him of being its instigator. Henry was not unwilling to have an excuse for getting rid of a minister who thwarted his favourite schemes. De Burgh was charged with waste of the public money, was disgraced, and cast into prison. 1228 A.D. 1232 A.D.

9. De Burgh was succeeded by Peter des Roches, Bishop of Winchester, a Poitevin by birth, who at the beginning of the reign had been Hubert's rival for power. His promotion was followed by a large influx of Poitevins, who were favoured at Court. Then the King married Eleanor of Provençe, and Provençals flocked into England, to the ill-concealed disgust of the English barons. 1236 A.D.

10. Besides the expedition already noticed, Henry, at the urgent entreaty of his mother, who had married her former lover, the Count of Marche, engaged in a second war with Louis. The Battles of **Taillebourg** and **Saintes,**[1] though not decisive, inclined the balance in favour of the French King; and truces, often broken, often renewed, led to a peace, by which Henry received Limousin, and parts of Guienne, as an equivalent for Normandy, Maine, Anjou, and Poitou, still held by Louis.

1242 A.D.

11. With Scotland the sword was never drawn during this long reign, although there were many disputes about the three northern English counties. Two royal alliances united the sister kingdoms: Joan, Henry's eldest sister, was married to Alexander II.; and, at a later date, Margaret, the daughter of Henry, to Alexander III. The armies of the English King often traversed Wales; but the Welsh Princes still held their mountain thrones unconquered.

SIMON DE MONTFORT.

12. Henry's fondness for foreign favourites, together with the encroachments of the Church, at length roused the spirit of the nation. The barons revolted under **Simon de Montfort,** Earl of Leicester, the husband of Eleanor, the King's sister. His desertion of his royal brother-in-law, and at the same time the departure for Germany of Richard, Henry's younger brother, who had won laurels in the fourth Crusade, and had just been created King of the Romans, shook the throne, and raised the hopes of its enemies.

---

[1] *Taillebourg and Saintes.*—South-east of Rochelle. (See *Map*, p. 169.)

13. At Westminster the barons came to the council in full armour; and, when they again assembled at Oxford, they appointed a committee of twenty-four to reform the State. This committee enacted—1. That four knights should come to Parliament to represent the free-holders of every county; 2. That sheriffs should be chosen annually by vote; 3. That accounts of the public money should be given every year; and, 4. That Parliament should meet three times a year—in February, June, and October. These enactments were called the **Provisions of Oxford.** **1258** A.D.

14. But reform was delayed by disunion among the barons; and the King of France, being chosen umpire, gave decision in Henry's favour. This kindled a civil war. Leicester held London; and, when the great bell of St. Paul's rang out, the citizens flocked around his banner. Riot, the pillage of foreign merchants, and the murder of unhappy Jews followed. At **Lewes** in Sussex Henry was defeated and taken prisoner. Prince Edward gave himself up next day. A treaty, called the **Mise of Lewes,** was made for the liberation of the King, but was never fulfilled. Henry and his two sons remained in close custody. May 14, **1264** A.D.

15. Early in the following year a Parliament was called by Leicester; to which he summoned representatives from cities and boroughs, in addition to the prelates, barons, and knights of the shire, already constitutionally comprised in the assembly. This was the first outline of our modern Parliament, the prelates and barons corresponding to the House of Lords, the others to the **House of Commons,** which accordingly dates from this time. But then, and long afterwards, these different estates sat together in one assembly. **1265** A.D.

16. Prince Edward, having escaped from his guards, met Leicester at **Evesham** in Worcestershire. The battle raged long and bloodily. The captive King, who had been forced into the field by Leicester, fell slightly Aug. 4.

wounded, and would have been killed if he had not cried out, "I am Henry of Winchester, the King." Edward knew his voice, and rushed to his aid. The body of "Sir Simon the Righteous," as the people called Montfort, was mutilated by the victors.

17. The crown sat firmly now on the monarch's head; and the civil war being over, the martial Edward joined the Crusade of St. Louis. During his son's absence Henry died, worn out by the troubles of his long reign—the longest in our annals except that of George III.[1]

18. *EDWARD I.*[2]—While in the **Holy Land,** Edward was stabbed with a poisoned dagger by an infidel. Tradition ascribes his recovery to the affection of his wife Eleanor, who is said to have sucked the poison from the wound. His crusading exploits were insignificant, and he left Palestine after a stay of eighteen months.

1272 A.D. In Italy he heard of his father's death, but his homeward journey was delayed by a disturbance in Guienne. Here a tournament, between Edward and the Count of Chalons, ended in a serious affray, in which the English knights were victors. Before passing into England, Edward arranged with the Countess of Flanders a quarrel which had long interrupted the trade in English wool,—a commodity highly prized by the Flemish cloth merchants.

---

[1] The introduction of the linen manufacture by some Flemings, the use of leaden water-pipes, and of candles instead of wooden torches, were among the improvements of this time. A license to dig coal, a mineral whose abundance in Britain has so much advanced our national wealth, was now first granted to the people of Newcastle. We may also trace to this reign our gold coinage. Science was much benefited by the researches of Roger Bacon, a Franciscan friar of Oxford, whose magnifying glasses and magic-lanterns gained for him the reputation of a wizard. On the Continent, Paulus, a Venetian, is said to have invented the mariner's compass, the needle being placed between floating straws.

[2] *Edward I.*—Son of Henry III. Married (1) Eleanor of Castile; (2) Margaret of France. Reigned 35 years.

19. Edward and his Queen were crowned at Westminster two years after Henry's death. Alexander of Scotland was present, and received £5 a day for the expenses of his journey.

QUESTIONS.—1. How did John behave after the barons had departed? What did he do?

2. Whose aid did the barons call in? Where did he land? What befell John's army on its way to meet him? What effect had this on John? Where did he die?

3. What part of England did Louis hold? Why did the barons desert him? Where was Henry crowned? How old was he? Who was appointed Regent?

4. What was the first act of the new reign? When was it again confirmed? What charter was added? What was the effect of the latter?

5. Where was Louis defeated? Where did De Burgh defeat him? By what stratagem?

6. Who succeeded Pembroke as Regent? To what task did he apply himself? What proof of the Papal supremacy remained? Who obtained his withdrawal?

7. When did Henry begin to reign in person? With which political party did he sympathize? How did the popular party take advantage of this? What principle was thus introduced?

8. For what was De Burgh blamed? How were his difficulties further increased? What praise is due to Langton? What increased after his death? Who were indignant? What took place? To whose fall did this lead? Why?

9. Who succeeded De Burgh? To what did his promotion lead? What caused an influx of Provençals?

10. What led to a second French war? What was its result?

11. What two marriages united England and Scotland during this reign? What was the condition of Wales?

12. What led to the revolt headed by Montfort? What circumstances shook the throne?

13. What step did the Parliament at Oxford take? What did this committee enact? What are these enactments called?

14. What delayed reform? What kindled the civil war? Where was Henry taken prisoner? What treaty followed?

15. What remarkable innovation did Leicester make in the Parliament which he called? The date? What element was thus introduced into the Constitution?

16. What was the result of the Battle of Evesham?

17. What enabled Prince Edward to join the Crusade? When did King Henry die?

18. What story is told of Queen Eleanor's affection for Edward? How long did he remain in Palestine? What delayed his homeward journey? What occurred at a tournament there? What trade did Edward make an arrangement for reviving? How?

19. Where were Edward and his Queen crowned? Who was present?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. 1215.—The **Mongols**, under Genghis Khan, having conquered a great part of Tartary, overran China. The Mongols were natives of Mongolia, on the north of China. The conquest of China by the Mongols was completed in 1279. They were expelled by the Chinese in 1368. In 1644 China was conquered by the Manchoorians, or East Tartars, by whom it has been governed ever since. (See 1644.)

2. 1229.—The **Sixth Crusade** was undertaken by the Emperor Frederic II., who, though discountenanced by the Pope, succeeded in obtaining from his friend the Sultan, without bloodshed, all that the Crusades had been designed to secure. Jerusalem, and the chief cities of Palestine, were given to the Emperor, and a ten years' truce was concluded.

3. 1233.—Ferdinand of Leon and Castile took Cordova, Toledo, and other towns, from the Moors, and drove them southwards. (See 1087.) The Moors then founded the kingdom of **Granada**. The famous palace, the **Alhambra**, was begun in 1248. (See 1492.)

4. 1244.—The Mongol Tartars, having overrun the Saracen Empire, took Jerusalem, which they pillaged and burned. About this time the Mongol Empire extended from the sea-board of China in the east to the confines of Germany in the west.

5. 1249.—The **Seventh Crusade** was undertaken by Louis IX. of France (St. Louis). He was defeated and taken prisoner by the Sultan of Egypt. He returned to France in 1254.

6. 1270.—The **Eighth Crusade** was begun by St. Louis of France; but he died of the plague at Tunis, and Prince Edward of England led the crusaders to Palestine. After relieving Acre, and taking Nazareth, he concluded a truce for ten years, and returned to England to assume the crown (1272).

7. 1273.—Rudolf I., the founder of the **Hapsburg** dynasty, became Emperor of Germany. The family derived its name from their Castle of Hapsburg (Hawk's Castle) on the Aar in Switzerland. The foundation of the greatness of this family (which still wears the imperial crown of Austria, though the male line expired with Charles VI., in 1640) was laid by Rudolf's father, Albert IV.

QUESTIONS.—1. Who overran China in 1215? When did they conquer it? When were they expelled?—2. Who led the Sixth Crusade? What did he accomplish? How?—3. Who drove the Moors southwards in Spain? What towns did he take from them? What kingdom did they then found? What palace was begun in 1248?—4. Who took Jerusalem in 1244?—5. When was the Seventh Crusade undertaken? By whom? How did it end?—6. When did he renew the Crusade? What was his end? Who continued the expedition? What did he effect?—7. Who was the founder of the Hapsburg dynasty in Germany? What is the origin of the name?

CHAPTER XI.

WARS WITH WALES AND SCOTLAND.

1. Llewelyn, Prince of Wales.
2. Edward, Prince of Wales.
3. Disputed Succession in Scotland.
4. A Naval War with France.
5. Reduction of Scotland.
6. William Wallace.
7. Confirmation of the Charters.
8. Robert the Bruce.
9. Edward II. and Gaveston.
10. The Lords Ordainers.
11. Bannockburn.
12. Edward Bruce in Ireland.
13. Famine and Pestilence.
14. The Barons' Power Checked.
15. Capture of the King and Despenser.
16. Death of the King.
17. Edward III.—The Regency.
18. Independence of Scotland.
19. Fall of Mortimer.
20. Renewed War with Scotland.

1. THE great aim of Edward's ambition was to conquer Wales and Scotland, and thus to unite under his sway the whole island. Many English princes[1] had tried to subdue **Wales**, but without success. Among their mountains and forests the highland race baffled the English spears. When Edward demanded homage, Llewelyn, the Prince of Wales, refused with disdain. For five years the English King traversed the land with foreign troops, skilled in mountain warfare. Llewelyn held out bravely; but his death from a lance-wound, received while he was surveying the valley of the Wye, extinguished the hopes of Welsh independence. In mockery of his claims, his head was sent to London, where, crowned with ivy, it was fixed on the Tower gate. **1282** A.D.

2. His brother David held out for a while; but being delivered up by his own countrymen, he was hanged by order of the conqueror. Edward was charged, but on doubtful evidence, with a massacre of the Welsh Bards[2] at Conway, lest their songs should preserve the spirit of ancient freedom among the people. The title "Prince of Wales," borne by the eldest son of the English Sovereign, was first given to the young Edward, who was born at Caernarvon.

3. The death of Margaret, the "Maid of Norway," confused the succession to the **Scottish Crown.** Thirteen competitors

[1] *Many English princes.*—Conspicuously, since the Conquest, William I. in 1081, William II. in 1095, Henry I. in 1114, and Henry II. in 1157.

[2] *Massacre of the Welsh Bards.*—On this story, whether it be true or false, the poet Gray founded his celebrated ode called *The Bard.*

appeared; but the claims of two, John Baliol and Robert Bruce,[1] were superior. These were descendants of David, a younger brother of William the Lion; Baliol being the grandson of David's eldest daughter, Bruce the son of the second. Edward claimed a right to interfere, on the ground that William
1292 the Lion, when the captive of Henry II., had acknowl-
A.D. edged himself a vassal of the English crown; and that Richard I. had no right to sell the deed of vassalage, since it was not his property, but that of all English Sovereigns. On this pretext for meddling with the affairs of Scotland, Edward appointed Baliol King.

4. Soon after these events a **naval war** arose between France and England. It sprang from a quarrel among sailors off the Norman coast. An Englishman having slain a Norman, the Normans seized an English ship and dragged out of it a passenger, whom in revenge they hanged mast high. The sailors of the Cinque Ports[2] joined in the quarrel; privateers swarmed in the Channel and the Bay of Biscay; and engagements, in which the English were generally victorious, frequently occurred.

5. **Baliol**, called repeatedly to London to answer for his conduct, found his vassalage so irksome that he renounced his fealty and rose in arms. But his feeble resistance was soon subdued. *Toom Tabard*[3]—as he was styled in scorn—was ignominiously dethroned at Strickathro (near Montrose), whence after some time he was allowed to retire to Normandy. Edward marched through Scotland to Elgin, exacting homage; and on his departure he left the Earl of Surrey as Guardian of the kingdom. The regalia of Scotland and the ancient coronation-stone[4] were

---

[1] *Baliol and Bruce.*—The following table shows their claims:—

WILLIAM the Lion.——David, Earl of Huntingdon.

Margaret.	Isabel.
Devergoil.	ROBERT BRUCE.
JOHN BALIOL.	

[2] *Cinque Ports.*—See p. 88.

[3] *Toom Tabard.*—That is, "empty coat." A tabard is properly a herald's coat, covered with heraldic devices; here it is put for the official tunic of a king. *Toom* is Scots for "empty."

[4] *Coronation-stone.*—A rough block of red sandstone, such as is common

carried to England by Edward, who at the same time destroyed all Scottish records which might keep alive the spirit of the nation.

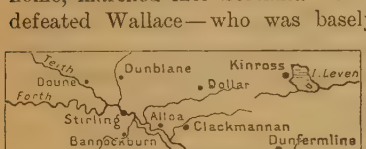
CORONATION CHAIR,
Containing the Stone of Destiny.

6. War soon broke out again. **William Wallace** was its hero. At the head of a band of patriots he retook from the English nearly all the fortresses north of the Forth. He defeated the Earl of Surrey in the Battle of **Stirling Bridge,** and drove the English across the Border. Wallace then ravaged the north of England, and on his return was proclaimed Guardian of Scotland. News of these doings reached Edward in Flanders. He hastened home, marched into Scotland with a large army, and defeated Wallace—who was basely deserted by the Scottish nobles—at Falkirk. For some years longer Wallace held out in the mountain fastnesses with a chosen band. At last he was betrayed by a false friend, sent to London in irons, and there hanged, beheaded, and quartered.

1297 A.D.

1298 A.D.

1305 A.D.



7. While these affairs were in progress, Edward's arbitrary

---

in Scotland. It stood first in Dunstaffnage Castle (Argyleshire), and was thence carried to Scone. It was placed in the Abbey of Westminster, completed by Edward in 1285, and still forms part of the coronation-chair. The regalia were restored to Scotland in the reign of Edward III.

proceedings had brought him into collision both with the clergy and with his barons. Before 1295 the **constitution of Parliament**—consisting of barons, clergy, knights of the shire, and burgesses—had been completely established, and its power to control taxation was acknowledged by the King. But Edward continued to act on his feudal privileges. He demanded aid from the clergy, and outlawed them when they withheld it. He ordered the barons to accompany him to Flanders. Many of them flatly refused. It was hopeless for him to resist

1298 A.D. the barons and the clergy combined. He was therefore forced in 1298 to abandon his illegal taxations, and to confirm the Great Charter. Four years later he also confirmed the Charter of Forests.

8. In six months from the death of Wallace, **Robert the Bruce** was crowned King of Scots. The news roused the old warrior to his last great effort. But he did not reach the Border. He lay long at Carlisle on a bed of sickness;

1307 A.D. and he died at Burgh-on-Sands. His last wish was that his bones should be carried at the head of the army till Scotland was subdued. Nevertheless he was at once buried in Westminster Abbey.[1]

9. *EDWARD II.*[2]—The Scottish war was almost immediately abandoned, and Bruce was left free to continue the work of recovering his strongholds. Young Edward hastened back to London to enjoy the pleasures of his kingship. Piers Gaveston, a Gascon, the vicious companion of his boyhood, was recalled from exile; and to him was committed the regency of the kingdom, while Edward sailed to Boulogne to marry Isabella, the beautiful daughter of Philip of France. The splendour of Gaveston excited the jealousy of the barons; the nicknames which he showered on them roused their anger. Twice the weak King banished him; twice he was recalled to his honours.

---

[1] Wind-mills and spectacles, paper from the East, and looking-glasses from Venice, were introduced in this reign; while the use of coal was forbidden, from the public annoyance caused by the smoke. The Jews, to the number of 16,000, were banished from the kingdom in 1290. Goldsmiths from Lombardy, who came to take their place as money-lenders and bankers, gave its name to Lombard Street, which has ever since been the favourite resort of money-dealers.

[2] *Edward II.*—Son of Edward I. Married Isabella of France. Reigned 20 years.

But the confederate nobles, headed by the Earl of Lancaster, seized him at Scarborough Castle, and caused his head to be struck off at Blacklow Hill, near Warwick (1312).

10. Before the death of the favourite, a Parliament, sitting fully armed, appointed a council of twenty-eight peers to manage the King's household and to reform the Government. These peers, who were called **Lords Ordainers**, drew up "articles of reform," the chief of which were—that Parliament should be called together at least once a year; that the King should not declare war nor leave the kingdom without the consent of the barons; and that their approval should be required in the appointment of officers of the crown and warders of the royal castles. Edward found excuses for postponing his formal acceptance of these articles till 1318. 1310 A.D.

11. Linlithgow, Roxburgh, Edinburgh, and Perth had been taken by Bruce; when, to save Stirling, which was sorely beset, Edward marched northward with 100,000 men. Bruce could muster scarcely 40,000 troops. The armies met at **Bannockburn**, near Stirling. On the evening before the great day, Bruce, mounted on a small pony, and armed only with a battle-axe, slew an English knight—Henry de Bohun—who attacked him in front of the lines. Next day the English cavalry began the attack; but they soon retreated in dismay, for the ground was full of pits, filled with sharp stakes and covered with hurdles. Then poured in a deadly flight of arrows from 50,000 English bows; but the archers were attacked in flank by a body of light cavalry, and completely broken. Bruce, with a rapid charge of the men of Argyle and the Isles, shook the English ranks. Just then the Scottish camp-followers, to the number of 20,000, rushed down from a hill close by. The English, thinking this a fresh army, broke into headlong rout. Edward rode to Dunbar, and thence took ship for England. June 24, 1314 A.D.

12. Five years later, the English King besieged Berwick, "the key of Scotland;" but again he failed, and a truce was made. About the same time Edward Bruce, brother of the Scottish King, landed in Ireland, and at Carrickfergus was crowned King. He held Ulster for two 1318 A.D.

years, but his death in battle at Fagher, near Dundalk, restored the English ascendency.

13. The years 1314 and 1315 were darkened by the miseries of famine. Even the royal table was scantily supplied with bread. The poor fed on roots, horses, and dogs. The breweries were stopped to prevent the waste of grain. A pestilence followed the famine. The nobles dismissed crowds of their retainers: these had no resource but robbery; and pillage and bloodshed filled the land.

14. Edward found new favourites in Hugh le Despenser and his son. The Earl of Lancaster tried to rouse the barons against them; but he was defeated at Boroughbridge and beheaded at Pontefract. In a Parliament which met at York in the following year, most of the ordinances of 1310 were repealed; and an Act was passed giving to knights, prelates, and **burgesses** the same voice in sanctioning laws as the barons claimed.

1321 A.D.

15. But the Lancastrian party still survived, and new events stirred it to more vigorous life. There was an open quarrel between **Edward and his Queen.** She fled to France; her son followed; Lord Mortimer, an adherent of Lancaster, joined them; and it was not long until the Queen landed at Orwell, on the Suffolk coast, with a foreign army. The King and Despenser escaped into Wales, but they were taken by the young Earl of Lancaster. Despenser was at once gibbeted. It was then declared in Parliament that Edward II. reigned no longer, and that his son held the sceptre in his stead.

Jan. 18, 1327 A.D.

16. For eight months the dethroned Monarch was removed from castle to castle, until within the walls of **Berkeley** Keep he died by violence. Nothing more is known than that one night fearful shrieks broke the stillness; and the next morning the citizens of Bristol were called to look on the distorted face of their late King. The corpse was privately buried at Gloucester.[1]

Sept. 20, 1327 A.D.

---

[1] During the reign of Edward II. earthenware came into general use. The interest of money was 45 per cent. Bills of exchange were introduced, and the first commercial treaty was made between England and Venice. Following the example of Philip the Fair, King of France, Edward II. seized the

17. *EDWARD III.*[1]—A **Council of Regency** was appointed, the young King being only fifteen years of age; but the real power was held by Isabella and Mortimer.

18. A **Scottish army** invaded the northern counties. It was difficult to follow its rapid movements, for it consisted wholly of cavalry, carrying no food except a bag of oat-meal at every saddle-bow. Edward offered knighthood, with £100 a year for life, to him who should discover their route. Thomas Rokeby won the prize, and led the English King to the Wear, on the opposite bank of which lay the foe. But no battle followed. In the dead of the fifth night the Scots re- **1328** treated towards the Border. The Treaty of North- A.D. ampton was then made, in which Edward, by the advice of Mortimer, acknowledged Scotland to be a distinct and independent kingdom. The treaty was cemented by the marriage of Jane, the King's sister, to the Scottish Prince, David.

19. The odium of this peace—the execution of the Earl of Kent, uncle of the King—and the growing manhood of Edward, now eighteen—overthrew the power of Isabella and her favourite. He was seized in Nottingham Castle, and **1330** hanged at Tyburn: she dragged out the remaining A.D. twenty-seven years of her life in her mansion of Risings, where the King paid her a formal visit once a year.

20. The great Bruce was dead (1329), and his son David was yet a child. Edward Baliol, making a bold push for the throne, invaded Scotland, and gained a victory at Dupplin. The English King, who supported Baliol, marched northward to July 19, seize Berwick. The Regent moved to save a fortress so **1333** important, and was met by Edward at **Halidon Hill.**[2] A.D. There was fought a battle so disastrous to the Scots that Baliol gained the crown; and the eastern lowland counties south of the Forth were given to Edward, and continued for a time under his sway.

QUESTIONS.—1. What was the great aim of Edward's ambition? What enabled the Welsh to baffle the English? What Prince defied Edward? How long did the war last? What extinguished the hopes of Welsh independence?

English property of the Knights Templars, and imprisoned many members of the once illustrious Order. They were charged with heresy and profligacy.

[1] *Edward III.*—Son of Edward II. Married Philippa of Hainault. Reigned 50 years.

[2] *Halidon Hill.*—Near Berwick.

2. What was the fate of his brother David? With what cruelty is Edward charged? Who was the first English Prince of Wales?

3. What led to Edward's interference in the affairs of Scotland? How many competitors for the crown were there? On what did Edward base his claim? Whom did he appoint King?

4. What was the origin of the naval war between France and England? Who joined in it?

5. What led Baliol to renounce his fealty? How was he punished? Whom did Edward appoint Guardian of Scotland? What did Edward remove from Scotland?

6. Who renewed the war? What victory did he gain? To what office was he appointed? Where was he defeated by Edward? What was his fate?

7. What brought Edward into collision with his own clergy? What was the cause of his quarrel with the barons? What was he forced to do in 1298?

8. Who was the next hero of Scottish independence? When was he crowned? Who marched against him? Where did Edward die? What was his last wish? Where was he buried?

9. How did young Edward deal with the Scottish war? Why did he go to France? Who was made Regent in his absence? How did he excite the jealousy of the barons? What did they do to him?

10. Who were the Lords Ordainers? What were the chief articles of reform drawn up by them? When did Edward accept these?

11. What led Edward to march to Scotland in 1314? How large was his army? How large was Bruce's? Where did the armies meet? What took place the evening before the battle? Who began the attack next day? What threw them into confusion? How were the English archers broken? What completed the rout of the English? Where did Edward go?

12. What occurred five years later? What expedition did Edward Bruce undertake? How did it end?

13. What darkened the years 1314 and 1315? By what was the famine followed?

14. Who were Edward's new favourites? Who tried to rouse the barons against them? What was his fate? What was done at the York Parliament the following year? What Act was passed?

15. What party still survived? What events stirred it into fresh life? Whither did the King escape? With whom? Who captured them? What did Parliament then declare?

16. When did Edward II. die? Where was he buried?

17. Who succeeded? How old was he? To whom was the government intrusted? Who had the real power?

18. What part of the country was invaded? By whom? How did Edward discover the enemy's whereabouts? When did the Scots retire? What treaty followed? What did it acknowledge? How was the peace cemented?

19. What overthrew the power of Isabella and Mortimer? What was the fate of each?

20. What led to a renewal of the Scottish war? What battle was fought? What were its results?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. **1281.**—The Teutonic Knights (see 1191) conquered **Prussia.** The Poles, hard pressed by the Borussi—a Sclavonic tribe occupying the shores of the Baltic—had called in the aid of the Teutonic Knights against them in 1228. They founded Thorn in 1231. In 1309 they fixed the seat of the Order at Marienburg. Königsberg was made the capital of Prussia (the land of the Borussi, or Prussi) in 1286. The Teutonic Knights undertook to Christianize the Borussi, but, instead,

they almost extirpated them, and the country was colonized by Germans.

2. **1282.**—The French in Sicily, to the number of 8,000, were massacred by the Sicilians. This massacre is called the **Sicilian Vespers.** The French, under Charles of Anjou (brother of Louis IX. of France), had deposed the Norman princes of Sicily in 1260, when Charles was proclaimed King of the Two Sicilies. Sicily was, soon after the massacre, seized by the King of Aragon; but Naples remained in the hands of the French till 1435. (See 1499.)

3. **1299.**—Othman, or Osman, an emir of the Sultan in Asia Minor, assumed supreme power, and founded the **Ottoman Empire** in Bithynia (Asia Minor). From his name are derived the terms *Ottoman* and *Osmanli*, applied by common usage to the Turks.

4. **1305.**—Clement V., a French Pope, took up his residence at **Avignon**, in France, which continued to be the seat of the Papal Government till 1377. This was the result of a quarrel between Pope Boniface VIII. and Philip IV. of France. The Pope prohibited the French clergy from paying taxes (1296). The King, supported by the States-General, resented the Pope's interference. The Pope excommunicated the King (1303), but died soon afterwards in a frenzy. His successor, who adopted the same policy, died in 1304—it was suspected, by poison. Philip then obtained the appointment of a French prelate as Pope, who was crowned at Lyons, and made Avignon his capital, without ever visiting Rome.

5. **1315.**—The Swiss patriots defeated the Austrians in the Battle of **Morgarten,** and so inaugurated successfully the war of Swiss independence. This war is said to have begun with the revolt of William Tell against the tyranny of Gesler, the Austrian viceroy, in 1306; but much of Tell's history is mythical. In 1307 a Confederation of Swiss Cantons was formed, and Swiss independence was declared. This was not acknowledged till 1389. (See 1388.)

6. **1320.**—**Gunpowder** was invented in Europe by Martin Schwartz, a German monk. It is said to have been known in China and other parts of the East much earlier.

7. **1327.**—The **Moors,** to the number of 200,000, crossed from Africa into Spain, to assist the Moorish King of Granada against the Christians.

8. **1328.**—The **Capetian** dynasty in France came to an end on the death of Charles IV. It had ruled France for 341 years (since 987). The House of Valois succeeded in the person of Philip VI.

9. **1335.**—The **Council of Ten** caused themselves to be declared a permanent assembly for the government of Venice. This Council originated in a secret committee to inquire into abuses in the administration. Their rule was a reign of terror, signalized by many dark crimes.

QUESTIONS.—1. What led the Teutonic Knights to enter Prussia? When did they conquer it? How did they treat the Borussi?—2. What was the Sicilian Vespers? When had the French got possession of Sicily? Who seized Sicily soon after the massacre?—3. By whom was the Ottoman Empire founded? When? Who was Osman?—4. During what time was Avignon the seat of the Popedom? What led to its removal there?—5. What opened the Swiss war of independence? When was Swiss independence declared? When was it acknowledged? What is said of William Tell?—6. Who invented gunpowder in Europe? When? Where is it said to have been known much earlier?—7. What was the object of a fresh incursion of Moors into Spain in 1327?—8. Who was the last of the Capetian line in France? What dynasty succeeded?—9. What council became supreme in Venice in 1335? What was its origin? What kind of rule did it exercise?

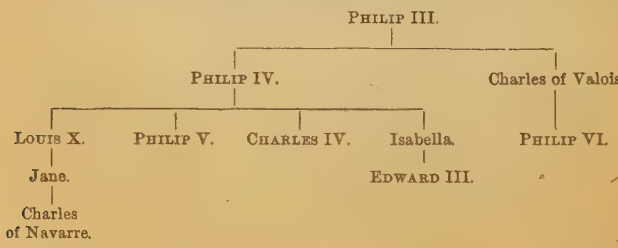
CHAPTER XII.

THE FIRST FRENCH WAR.

1. Edward's Claim to the French Crown.
2. Indecisive Campaigns.
3. Invasion of Normandy.
4. The March to Creçy.
5. The Array of Battle.
6. The Attack.
7. The Prince of Wales Wins his Spurs.
8. Capture of David of Scotland.
9. Capture of Calais.
10. The Black Plague.
11. Renewal of the French War.
12. Battle of Poitiers.
13. Treaty of Bretigny.
14. The French Provinces again Lost.

1. To unite in his person the crowns of France and England, was the great aim of the policy of Edward III. The three sons of Philip IV. had died heirless; and Edward of England and Philip of Valois were rivals for the vacant throne.[1] Edward's mother was a daughter of Philip IV.; Philip was the nephew of that Monarch. The Salic law, which enacted that no female could inherit the French throne, stood in Edward's way, and Philip was elected. At the same time France, as the ally of Scotland, declared war against England.

[1] The following table shows the rival claims:—



2. The English King seized all the wool and tin in his kingdom, pawned his crown and his jewels, quartered on his shield the lilies of France, and sailed to the Continent to assert his rights on the battle-field. Two campaigns were indecisive. A naval victory at **Sluys**, on the Flemish coast, was gained by the English; but they were beaten back from the walls of Tournay, and a truce for a year was made. Again the war was renewed; again it failed.

1338 A.D.

1340 A.D.

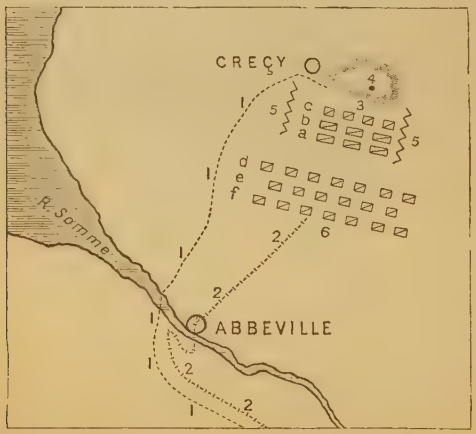
3. In the seventh year of the war, the English King resolved to strike at France in other directions. Sending the Earl of Derby with a force to Gascony, he embarked in person at Southampton with a great army bound for the same southern

province of the invaded land. A storm drove him to anchor on the Cornish coast for six days, during which he changed his mind as to the destination of his fleet. Normandy was now to be the direction of their course. Landing at La Hogue, he prepared for an advance upon Caen. The Prince of Wales, known better as **the Black Prince**, from the colour of his armour, received knighthood on the sands at La Hogue, and

was associated with his father in the command of the army: he had now reached the age of sixteen.

4. The English army, passing from Caen to Evreux, spread its ravages almost to the suburbs of Paris, but then turned sharply off to Beauvais—bent, it is said, on getting safely out of France. But guards held the bridges of the Somme. Philip had caught the English army in a trap from which there seemed to be no loop-hole of escape. Almost in despair, Edward surveyed the Somme, but could find no ford and no unguarded bridge. At this crisis he heard from a prisoner of a spot below Abbeville, where the river could be passed at the ebb of the tide. Dashing in at the proper time, he led his forces over in the face of a great body of the enemy, who in vain tried to prevent the passage of the stream. Philip in hot chase found the water too high to follow. He had to go round by Abbeville, while the English King made his way to the forest of **Crecy**, where a battle must certainly be fought.

5. Leaving Abbeville at sunrise on Saturday, August 26th,



1. Edward's line of march.
2. Philip's line of march.
3. The English army.
   (*a*) The Black Prince.
   (*b*) Arundel. (*c*) Edward.
4. The windmill.
5. Trenches.
6. The French army.
   (*d*) Genoese. (*e*) Alençon.
   (*f*) Philip.

1346, Philip toiled with his soldiers on to Creçy, where the army of Edward, refreshed with food and sleep, awaited his approach. The English army, of 30,000 men, was drawn up in three lines; the Prince of Wales commanded the first, the Earl of Arundel the second, and Edward the third line. Its flanks were guarded by trenches. The falling back of his vanguard, when it came within view of the English, disordered Philip's array; but he contrived hastily to throw his force of 120,000 men into three lines. The first consisted of Genoese cross-bowmen, the second was led by the Count of Alençon, and the third by Philip in person. The sky grew dark as the armies faced each other; rain and thunder came on.

6. When the sun shone again at five o'clock in the afternoon, the Genoese, armed with cross-bows, advanced to the **attack** in a huge mass of 15,000 men. They were tired with eighteen miles of a heavy march. The sun dazzled their eyes, and destroyed their aim. All at once a shower of arrows began to pour on them with a force which neither shield nor armour could withstand. They fled. Vainly the cavalry of Alençon strove to stem the flight; but the Count managed to lead them past the archers, who stood arrayed in the form of a portcullis or harrow, and fell with fury on the foremost battalion, led by the Prince of Wales.

Aug. 26, 1346 A.D.

7. An Englishman who fought by the Prince sent for aid to the King, who stayed with the reserve by a wind-mill on a hill; but Edward refused, saying, "Let the boy win his spurs: his shall be the glory of the day." In vain the French King tried to pierce the phalanx of archers which stood between him and his routed horsemen; his bravest knights fell fast around him; the horse he rode was killed;—there was no hope but in flight. Eleven princes, twelve hundred knights, and thirty thousand common soldiers are said to have fallen in the battle, and in the carnage of the next day. John, the blind King of Bohemia, was among the slain. He was led into the battle by attendant knights, whose bridles were interlaced with his. His crest and motto—three ostrich feathers with the words *Ich dien*, "I serve"—have ever since been borne by the Princes of Wales. Cannon of a rude sort were first used at Creçy.

8. In the same year, but two months later, was fought the Battle of **Nevil's Cross.** David of Scotland, having regained his throne, invaded England as the ally of France; but he was defeated and made prisoner by Lord Henry Percy, with whom were Edward Baliol, the Earl of Angus, and other Scottish lords.

Oct. 17, **1346** A.D.

9. The victor of Creçy at once invested **Calais.** He raised no mounds, directed no engines against the walls, but for almost twelve months he ground the garrison with the slow torture of famine, and thus forced them to open their gates. He placed a colony of his own subjects in the town, which, for more than two centuries afterwards, continued to be a flourishing mart for the exports of England.

Aug. 4, **1347** A.D.

10. A terrible sickness called the Black Plague, which had swept over Asia and the south of Europe, now broke out in France and England. The London church-yards were soon filled; the lower classes fell by hundreds in the day; wailing and desolation filled every city. Many evils followed the pestilence. Nearly all the labourers who had escaped the plague left the country. Labour was so expensive that the crops were often allowed to moulder away, and the price of food rose fourfold. To check this evil, Parliament in 1351 passed a **Statute of Labourers,** compelling workmen to accept of the wages in use before the plagué. It was supplemented by a second statute in 1353, forbidding labourers to quit the parish in which they worked. Thus was villanage restored.

1349 A.D.

11. Philip of France had died, and his son John ruled. The war was renewed in 1355, chiefly under the conduct of the Prince of Wales. The first campaign was occupied in wasting the provinces around Bordeaux; the second was signalized by the Battle of **Poitiers.**[1]

12. The Prince had pierced too far into the centre of France, and on his return he found an army, seven times as large as his own, between him and Bordeaux. To fight his way back was his only resource. Fortunately for him the battle-ground was among vineyards, which impeded the French cavalry. As at Creçy, the English archers won the

Sept. 19, **1356** A.D.

[1] *Poitiers.*—See *Map,* p. 169.

day. Protected by the hedges, they poured into the French ranks shafts which no armour could resist. The first and second divisions of the French fell back; the King on foot led on the third, but was thrown to the ground and made prisoner with his young son. Father and son were led to England by the triumphant Edward.

13. There were thus two royal captives in England,—David of Scotland, and John of France. The former was ransomed in 1357, the eleventh year of his imprisonment. The latter was freed by the **Treaty of Bretigny**, called "The great peace," by which Edward renounced all claim to the French crown, retaining, instead of his ancestral dominions, only Poitou, Guienne, and the town of Calais. Three millions of golden crowns were to be paid as the ransom of John; but, failing to raise this sum, he returned to his captivity, and died at the Savoy, a palace in the Strand, then a suburb of London.

1360 A.D.

14. The Black Prince ruled in Guienne; but an expedition into Spain, in support of Pedro the Cruel, loaded him with debt and shattered his health. Meeting Du Guesclin, the greatest soldier of France, in battle at **Navarrete** near the Ebro (1367 A.D.), he won a glorious but thankless victory. His French subjects objected to the heavy taxation with which he oppressed them, and appealed to the King of France. Charles V. summoned the Black Prince to his court to answer an appeal from the lords of Gascony. The Prince declared war. Though his health was so broken that he had to be carried in a litter, he invaded France, and cruelly sacked Limoges; but he was soon obliged by illness to return to England. From that time the English cause in France grew weak. One by one the provinces were lost, until, in 1374, there remained to Edward only the towns of Calais, Bordeaux, and Bayonne.

QUESTIONS.—1. What was the great aim of the policy of Edward III.? Who were rivals for the French crown? What were the claims of each? Why did France declare war against England?

2. How did Edward obtain money for the war? What naval victory did the English gain?

3. In what year of the war did Edward resolve on a new invasion? What was the first destination of his fleet? When did he alter it? Where did he land? What took place at La Hogue?

4. What direction did the army take? How far eastward did it go? In what trap was it caught? How did it escape? What course was Philip forced to take?

5. On what day was the Battle of Crecy fought? Describe the array of the English army, and of the French.

6. Who began the attack? Under what disadvantages did they labour? What caused them to flee? Who attacked the division of the Prince of Wales?

7. What message was sent to Edward? What did he reply? What was the result of the battle? How many are said to have fallen? Who was among the slain? What did the Prince of Wales adopt from him?

8. What battle was fought two months later? What was the issue?

9. By what was the victory of Crecy followed?

10. By what were France and England visited in 1348? How did it increase the price of food? How did Parliament try to check the evil? When was a second Statute of Labourers passed? What was thus restored?

11. When was the French War renewed? What battle signalized the second campaign?

12. Why was the Black Prince forced to fight it? How did the ground favour the English? Who won the day? Who were captured?

13. When was David of Scotland released? When was the King of France freed? Why did he return to captivity? Where did he die?

14. Why did the Black Prince go to Spain? What victory did he gain? What led to his quarrel with his French subjects? To whom did they appeal? What followed? What compelled the Prince to return to England? What was the effect of his departure? To what were the English possessions in France reduced in 1374?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. 1347.—In the midst of the confusion which prevailed at Rome during the absence of the Papal Government, **Rienzi**, a wild enthusiast, seized the supreme power, and was made Tribune; an office which he held for seven months. He formed the design of uniting all Italy in one powerful republic. But he was suspected of aspiring to regal honours, and was forced to flee. He returned in 1354, and was made Senator by Pope Innocent VI. But within four months he was stabbed in the Capitol.

2. 1356.—The mode of election and the number of electors in the German Empire were settled by the **Golden Bull** (so called from its seal) promulgated at Nürnberg in Bavaria. The College of Electors consisted of seven members:—the Archbishops of Mainz, Treves, and Cologne; the King of Bohemia; the Count-Palatine of the Rhine; the Duke of Saxony; and the Margrave of Brandenburg.

3. 1362.—The Sultan penetrated into Thrace, and took **Adrianople**, where he fixed his capital. In 1373 he made a treaty with the Emperor of the East, by which the territories of the latter were greatly curtailed. About this time the Sultan instituted the **Janissaries**, a bodyguard composed of young Christian slaves trained as Mohammedans. Subsequently they became an order of infantry in the Turkish army. In the seventeenth century they became very powerful, and on several occasions deposed the Sultans, and even put them to death. They were not finally abolished till 1826.

QUESTIONS.—1. Who became supreme at Rome in 1347? To what office was he appointed? What design did he form? Why had he to flee? When did he return? What was his end?—2. What did the Golden Bull settle? Of whom did the College of Electors consist?—3. To what place did the Sultan penetrate in 1362? What treaty was made in 1373? Who were the Janissaries? What did they subsequently become? When did they acquire great power? When were they finally abolished?

CHAPTER XIII.

THE BARONS AGAINST THE COMMONS.

1. The Barons of the Royal Council.
2. The Work of the Good Parliament.
3. Its Work Undone.
4. The Quarrel of the Barons with the Clergy.
5. John Wyclif and Church Abuses.
6. Richard II.—Reform Resumed.
7. The Poll-tax.
8. The Peasants' Revolt.
9. Death of Tyler.
10. Death of Wyclif.
11. Border Wars.
12. The Wonderful Parliament.
13. Richard's Power Absolute.

1. IN the later years of his reign, Edward III. became enfeebled in body and in mind, and suffered himself to be ruled by Alice Perrers, a woman of wit and beauty, but of bad character. During that time the government was managed almost entirely by the **Barons of the Royal Council.** This usurpation, which it really was, displeased the Commons' section of the Parliament, which had begun to claim a more active and independent share than formerly in the work of legislation. For some years past (ever since 1333) the Parliament had been divided into **two Houses,**[1] each occupying a separate chamber. The prelates and the greater barons formed the House of Lords. The knights of the shire (representatives of the lesser barons) and the burgesses formed the House of Commons.

2. A crisis came in the Parliament of 1376—sometimes called **the Good Parliament**—when the Commons protested against the abuse of power by the Barons of the King's Council. They embodied their grievances in one hundred and sixty petitions. Their demands were supported by the Black Prince; but they were opposed by his brother, John of Lancaster, who made himself the champion of the

1376 A.D.

[1] *Two Houses.*—The division is supposed to have been made, in the first instance, because of the difficulty of finding, in some of the towns in which the Parliament met, a room sufficiently large to accommodate the whole body.

baronage both against the Commons and against the Church. Many of the "articles of reform" of the Lords Ordainers of 1310 were reënacted. Parliament was to meet annually. Arbitrary taxation was to be discontinued. Papal encroachments were to be resisted. The knights of the shire were to be freely elected. Trade was to be protected.

3. At this juncture **the Black Prince died.** The Duke of Lancaster at once resumed his supremacy in the Council, and the progress of reform was checked. Under his influence a new Parliament was called, which undid all that the Good Parliament had done.

4. Side by side with this struggle between the Barons and the Commons there went on another struggle between the Barons and the Church. In defiance of the statutes of Praemunire and Provisors, passed in 1353, the Pope continued to levy taxes on the English clergy and to present foreigners to English benefices. This was a grievance of which both the Lords and the Commons complained. But the special quarrel between the Barons and the Clergy concerned the riches and the assumptions of the English prelates and abbots. The clergy were among the wealthiest men in the country, but they were said to contribute least to the common good. The rapacious Barons, with Lancaster at their head, proposed to seize the **Church lands** and apply them to national purposes.

5. A theological aspect was given to the dispute by the writings of **John Wyclif,** who appeared as a Church reformer long before he became a Protestant. His doctrine that the State was supreme over all temporalities, whether they belonged to baron or to prelate, led him to support the barons' cause, though he had no sympathy with their rapacity. In 1377 he was summoned before the Bishop of London, to answer for heretical views in his book *Of the Kingdom of God.* The Duke of Lancaster accompanied him to the court, stood by his side, and insulted the bishop. That provoked the common people, who were jealous of the power of the barons, and especially of Lancaster. For a time it deprived Wyclif of popular support. But his boldness in exposing Church abuses, and in defying the Papal authority, ere long brought the

1377 A.D.

mass of the people to his side. Before the end of the year, Edward III. died.[1]

6. *RICHARD II.*[2]—Richard, son of the Black Prince, was crowned in his eleventh year. In honour of the event, London was gay with banners and arches. During the King's minority the power was vested in twelve councillors, his uncles being excluded. The House of Commons resumed its work of reform, claiming the right to approve of the appointment of officers of State, and to demand from them an account of how the taxes were spent. The French war was continued, but it ended in failure. A French fleet ravaged the English coast. An English fleet was repulsed by the Spaniards. The treasury was empty, and fresh taxation became necessary. **1377** A.D.

7. This was imposed in the form of a **poll-tax** of one shilling on every person above fifteen. As this tax exacted as much from the poor serf as from the rich land-owner, it excited great discontent, and ultimately a revolt of the peasants. It broke out in Essex and Kent, but spread westward to Winchester, and northward to Scarborough. The leaders were Wat Tyler, and Jack Straw, a priest. In this insurrection we discover the result of those statutes of labourers by which the plague had been followed. The claims of the lower orders were encouraged by the preaching of **John Ball**, a priest, who spread abroad the doctrine that all men were born equal, and had equal rights. He took as his text,— **1380** A.D.

> "When Adam delved and Eve span,
> Who was then the gentleman?"

8. Swarming in vast numbers to London, they sacked the private dwellings, burned the prisons, and slew many of the honest Flemish clothiers. Richard met them at Mile-end, and

[1] In this reign the *Statute of Treasons* was passed (1352), defining the offences which constituted high treason. In 1356, William of Wykeham, afterwards Bishop of Winchester and Lord Chancellor, began the rebuilding of Windsor Castle. The use of the English tongue in courts of law (in place of Latin and French) was established about 1362. To this period are ascribed the institution of the Order of the Garter, and the revival in England of the title "Duke," the Black Prince being styled Duke of Cornwall.

[2] *Richard II.*—Son of the Black Prince, and grandson of Edward III. Married (1) Anne of Bohemia; (2) Isabella of France. Reigned 22 years.

granted their demands, which were:—1. That slavery should be abolished; 2. That the rent of good land should be fourpence an acre; 3. That all should have liberty to buy and sell in fairs or markets; 4. That all past offences should be pardoned. The charters were no sooner sealed than the riots began again, and several murders were committed.

9. Next day the King held a conference in Smithfield with Tyler, who was followed by 20,000 men. The rebel
1381 leader, happening to lay his hand on his dagger, was A.D. cut down by Walworth, the Lord Mayor, and as he lay on the ground he was killed by one of the King's esquires. Richard, regardless of the frowns and bended bows of the rebels, galloped up to them, crying, "Tyler was a traitor: I myself will be your leader!" This boldness had a great effect on the crowd: their numbers melted away, and the rebellion was soon over. But the promise of pardon was recalled by the House of Lords, and fifteen hundred perished on the gibbet.

10. Meantime **John Wyclif**, in the retirement of his study at Oxford, had been working out the problem of Church reform which he had taken in hand. In connection with this, he was led to examine the doctrines of the Church, and in 1381 he made a public declaration against Transubstantiation. His writings were condemned by a council of prelates, and he and all his followers were ordered to quit Oxford. Wyclif retired to Lutterworth in Leicestershire, where he translated the Bible into English, and by his works sowed the first seeds of the Reformation in this land. He died in 1384. His disciples (who were called **Lollards**, or singers) presented a *Remonstrance* to the House of Commons in 1395, against the wealth and worldliness of the clergy.

11. France and Scotland in alliance attempted an invasion of England, but met with little success. Richard, in re-
1385 turn, penetrated the latter kingdom as far as to Aber- A.D. deen, committing great havoc in Edinburgh, Dunfermline, Perth, and Dundee. But in 1388 the Battle of **Otterbourne**, between the Douglases and the Percies, ended in the defeat of the English. This battle formed the foundation of the old Border ballad of "Chevy Chase."

12. Richard, young and inexperienced, trusted much to favourite ministers. But his uncles often interfered in the government; and ultimately one of them, the Duke of Gloucester, was elected head of a council to which the administration was intrusted. The **Wonderful Parliament** of 1388 put the Earl of Suffolk, the chief favourite, to death, and confiscated the property of the rest. Richard, watching his opportunity, at twenty-two shook himself free from the trammels of guardianship, and for some years ruled with justice and mercy; but he had not the iron will necessary to cope with the fierce and turbulent spirits that surrounded his throne.

1388 A.D.

1389 A.D.

13. The removal of Gloucester, who was murdered mysteriously in the prison of Calais, the repeal of all Acts passed by the Wonderful Parliament, and the grant of a life-tax on wool, made Richard in his last year an **absolute King.**

QUESTIONS.—1. What did Edward III. become in the later years of his reign? By whom was he ruled? Who then managed the government? Whom did this displease? What change in the meetings of the Parliament took place at this time? How were the Estates divided?

2. When did a crisis come? What then occurred? Who supported the Commons? Who opposed them? What articles were reënacted?

3. What checked the progress of reform? What was done by the new Parliament?

4. What other struggle went on at the same time? What was the special ground of quarrel between the Barons and the Clergy? What was the aim of Lancaster and his party?

5. What gave a theological aspect to the dispute? Why was he summoned before the Bishop of London? Who went with him to the court? Who were provoked by this? What brought the mass of the people to his side? When did Edward III. die?

6. Who succeeded him? Who ruled during the King's minority? What position did the House of Commons take up? Why did increased taxation become necessary?

7. In what form was it imposed? Why was the tax displeasing to the common people? Where did a revolt break out? Who were its leaders? Of what was this insurrection the result? Whose preaching encouraged the lower orders? What did he take as his text?

8. What damage did the rioters do in London? Where did Richard meet them? What demands did he grant? By what was the sealing of the charters followed?

9. Where did the King meet them next day? What then occurred? How did the House of Lords act?

10. What declaration did Wyclif make in 1381? How were he and his followers punished? Where did he go? How did he occupy his time? When did he die?

11. Why did Richard invade Scotland in 1385? What damage did he do? What occurred in 1388?

12. To whom did Richard trust much? Who often interfered in the government? Which of them was made head of the council? How did the Wonderful Parliament deal with the King's favourites? At what age did the King throw off the trammels of guardianship?

13. What made Richard's rule absolute?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. **1388.**—The Swiss defeated the Austrians at Näfels, and peace was concluded in 1389, which secured the **independence of Switzerland.** In 1352 eight cantons (Schwytz, Uri, Unterwalden, Lucerne, Zurich, Glarus, Zug, and Berne) had entered into a perpetual league to maintain their independence. Duke Leopold of Austria had attempted to impose tribute on them; but he was defeated and slain at Sempach, in 1386.

2. **1390.**—All the possessions of the Eastern Empire in Asia were lost.

3. **1395.—Tamerlane** (Timûr the Tartar), a Mongolian, invaded Russia, but retired without making any permanent conquest. Tamerlane is a corruption of Timûr-lenk; that is, "Timûr the lame."

4. **1397.**—Queen Margaret of Denmark and Norway united these countries with Sweden by her marriage with Eric, the Swedish King. Denmark and Norway had been united in 1389.

QUESTIONS.—1. When was the independence of Switzerland secured? When had the league of eight cantons been formed? Who had attempted to impose tribute on them? What was his fate?—2. What possessions did the Eastern Empire lose in 1390?—3. What country did Tamerlane invade in 1395? With what result?—4. When were Denmark and Norway united with Sweden? How? When had Denmark and Norway been united?

CHAPTER XIV.

SOCIAL CONDITION—TIME OF THE ANGEVINS.

1. Food—Dwellings—Furniture.
2. People.
3. Wages—Employments.
4. Dress.
5. Sports.
6. Learning.
7. Language and Literature.
8. Leading Authors.

1. **Food—Dwellings—Furniture.**—Gradually the higher classes became more refined. The use of spices in cookery gave new relish to their food: glass windows, earthen vessels, coal fires, and candle light, added to the comfort of their homes. The use of tiles instead of thatch improved their dwellings. The church architecture belonging to this period has been called the Decorated Gothic. Pointed arches and profuse ornament are the distinctive features of the style, of which Melrose Abbey and Exeter Cathedral may be cited as specimens. But furniture was still scanty. A decent farm-house could boast of little more than one or two beds, a few seats, a set of fire-irons, a brass pot, with a dish and a cup of the same metal.

2. **People.**—The leading merchants dealt in wool. Even the Kings did not disdain to trade in fleeces. The conqueror at

MELROSE ABBEY.

Creçy, one of the bravest and best of them, was called in derision by his French rival, "The royal wool-merchant." The army was composed of four classes: 1. The *men-at-arms*, comprising knights, esquires, and their followers. These were heavy cavalry. 2. The *hoblers*, who were light cavalry, mounted on inferior horses; they were engaged chiefly in the Scottish wars. 3. The *archers*, whose skill gained some of the greatest victories of the period. Their bows were of two kinds,—long-bows to discharge shafts, and cross-bows for bolts or quarrels (these were arrows with solid square heads made of iron). 4. The *foot-men*, armed with spears, and wearing skull-caps, quilted coats, and iron gloves.

3. **Wages—Employments.**—Some idea of the value of money in those days may be gathered from the rate of wages. Hay-makers got a penny a day; labourers, three-halfpence; carpenters, twopence; and masons, threepence. No one was allowed to work out of his own parish, except the men of Staffordshire, Derbyshire, Lancashire, and those from the marches of Scotland and Wales, who helped to reap the English harvest. Agriculture was a favourite employment of the clergy: we read of even Becket and his monks tossing hay, and binding sheaves in the fields. Many of the improvements of the time in gardening were due to the monks.

4. **Dress.**—The dress of Edward the Third's Court may be taken

as a specimen of the fashion prevailing during the period. The exquisites wore a coat, half blue, half white, with deep sleeves; trousers reaching scarcely to the knee; stockings of different colours; and long-toed shoes. Their beards were long and curled; their hair was tied in a tail behind; while a close hood of silk, embroidered with strange figures of animals and buttoned under the chin, enclosed the head. The most striking part of the ladies' dress at this time was a towering head-dress like a mitre, some two feet high, from which floated a whole rainbow of gay ribbons. Their trains were long; their tunics were of many colours. They wore two daggers in a golden belt, and rode to the tournament and the forest on spirited steeds.

5. **Sports.**—The tournament was still the first of sports: but there was also tilting at the ring, when knights strove at full horse-speed to carry off on the point of a levelled lance a suspended ring; and tilting at a wooden figure called a Quintain, which, turning on a pivot, bore with outstretched arm a wooden sword. He who struck fairly in the centre was untouched; but, if the lance struck too much on one side, the awkward tilter caught a sound blow from the wooden sword as he rode past the whirling image. Horse-racing and bull-baiting were sports in which high and low took equal interest: but the great pastime of the lower classes was archery, which they were bound by royal proclamation to practise on Sundays and holidays after Divine service; upon which occasions other sports, such as quoits, cock-fighting, foot-ball, and hand-ball, were forbidden.

6. **Learning.**—In an age when "might was the only right," and the qualities most prized were personal strength and skill in arms, it is not strange that education, according to our notion of it, was neglected. War and woodcraft were all that the great cared to know. They neither read nor wrote; or, if they *did* read, it was, as has been humorously said, "by spelling all the small words and skipping all the large ones." The clergy alone were learned; but their knowledge was confined within a narrow circle. Theology was their favourite study; but glimmerings of other sciences began to appear in the cloisters. They represented all the peaceful professions. They were the lawyers, the physicians, and the teachers of the day. Every monastery had its *scriptorium*, or writing-room, where manuscripts, of which

every page was bordered with a beautiful design in gold and bright colours, were copied by the patient monks. The books thus produced were very costly, as much as £40 being paid for a copy of the Bible.

7. **Language and Literature.**—The English tongue, modified by the changes of the Conquest, began gradually to approach to its present form. The law which governs the transition of an old form of speech into a new one, is,—"As the language advances, its grammatical terminations drop off, and their place is supplied by auxiliary words." As the language grows with the nation, with the nation also it gradually changes. Their history is inseparable. It was not until the time of Edward III. that England began to recover from the shock of the Norman Conquest. Then the English mind awoke from the lethargy of bondage, and our modern literature had its birth. English prose and English poetry alike sprang to life. Geoffrey Chaucer wrote his *Canterbury Tales;* about the same time appeared the works of John Wyclif, who, as Chaucer is called the father of English verse, may justly be styled the father of English prose.

---

8. LEADING AUTHORS OF THE PERIOD—(1154–1399).

LAYAMON, a priest of Areley Regis in Worcestershire—wrote a rhyming *Chronicle of Britain* about 1200.

ROBERT OF GLOUCESTER, (1230–1285)—wrote a *Chronicle of England* and *Lives and Legends of the English Saints.*

ROBERT MANNING, of Brunne or Bourne in Lincolnshire—author of a rhyming *Chronicle of Britain.*

JOHN GOWER, (1325–1408)—poet—wrote *Confessio Amantis,* and other works.

GEOFFREY CHAUCER, (1328–1400)—first great English poet—lived in the time of Edward III. and Richard II.—chief work, *The Canterbury Tales.*

JOHN MANDEVILLE, (1301–1372)—born at St. Albans—wrote *Travels* in the East, in English, French, and Latin.

WILLIAM LONGLAND,—born in Shropshire about 1300—Fellow of Oriel College, Oxford—author of *The Vision of William concerning Piers the Plowman,* a satire on the clergy.

JOHN WYCLIF, (1324–1384)—a native of Yorkshire—Professor of Divinity, Baliol College, Oxford—translator of *The Bible into English*—earliest English Reformer.

JOHN BARBOUR, Archdeacon of Aberdeen—wrote about 1376 a rhyming chronicle called *The Acts of Robert Bruce.*

QUESTIONS.—1. What is the name given to the style of church architecture belonging to this period? Give examples. What was the furniture of a farm-house?

2. Relate what you know of trade at this period. What derisive epithet was applied to Edward III. by the King of France? Of what four classes was the army composed?

3. What was the rate of wages for hay-makers? Labourers? Carpenters? Masons? To what law were the men of Staffordshire, Derbyshire, Lancashire, &c., an exception? What was the favourite employment of the clergy?

4. Describe the dress of the period. What was peculiar in the shoes? What was the most striking part of the ladies' dress?

5. Relate what you know of the sports of the Plantagenet period. What was the *Quintain?*

6. What was the state of learning at this period? What was the *Scriptorium?*

7. What was the state of the English tongue? When had modern English literature its birth? Who was the father of English poetry? Who was the father of English prose?

8. Who wrote the *Acts of Bruce? Piers Plowman? Confessio Amantis?* What was Wyclif's position at Oxford?

CHAPTER XV.

THE LANCASTRIAN REVOLUTION.

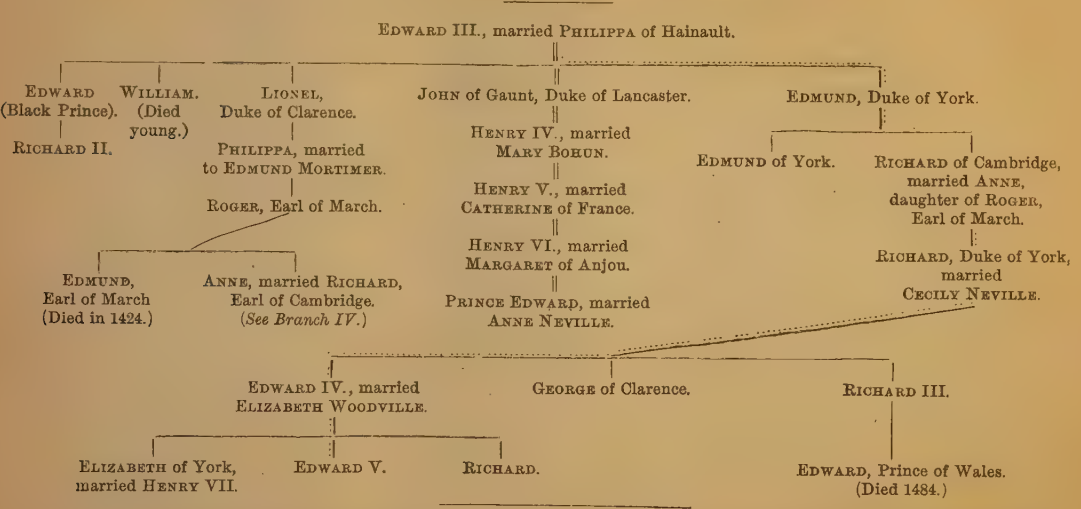
1. General Discontent.
2. Landing of Hereford.
3. Deposition of Richard.
4. Plots and Insurrections.
5. Glendower's Revolt.
6. The Statute of Heretics.
7. A Scottish War.
8. The Percies' Revolt.
9. Dispute with France.
10. Imprisonment of James of Scotland.
11. The Riotous Prince Hal.
12. Death of Henry IV.
13. Increasing Power of the Commons.
14. Henry V.
15. Persecution of the Lollards.
16. Death of Oldcastle.

1. RICHARD'S success in centring power in himself led directly to his fall. He had alienated all classes of his subjects—the lower orders, by his failure to fulfil the promises made to them at the beginning of his reign; the higher orders, by his opposition to the Statutes of Labourers; the Church, by his remissness in dealing with the Lollards. The wide-spread discontent needed but an occasion to break out, and that was soon found.

2. A quarrel having arisen between the Duke of Norfolk and the Duke of Hereford, son of John of Gaunt, the King banished both—Norfolk for life, Hereford for ten years. Norfolk never returned, but Hereford reäppeared, to demand, as he said, the estates of his dead father, which Richard had seized. He landed at Ravenspur in Yorkshire with only twenty followers; but when he reached London 60,000 men marched under his

GENEALOGICAL TREE

CONNECTING THE ANGEVINS AND THE HOUSES OF LANCASTER AND YORK.



The double line marks the direct descent of the House of Lancaster; the dotted line that of the House of York; but the intermarriage of the second and fourth branches gave colour to the Yorkist claims.

banner. Richard, who was in Ireland, was delayed for three weeks by bad weather; and, when he arrived at Milford Haven, he found that the crown had passed away from him.

3. At Flint he became the prisoner of Hereford, and was led with mock respect to London. The Parliament met in Westminster Hall, where stood the empty throne covered with cloth of gold. Solemnly Richard was **deposed**, and the same shouts which greeted his downfall hailed Hereford as King Henry IV. of England. Before the second month of 1400 closed, the dethroned King had died in the dungeons of Pontefract, either by starvation or by the hand of an assassin. He left no heir.[1]

Sept. 30, **1399** A.D.

4. *HENRY IV.*[2]—The dread of rivals, which usually haunts usurpers, beset the new King. He detained in close custody the young Edmund, Earl of March, who, being descended from an elder branch of the royal Plantagenets, was, according to the law of inheritance, King by right. He was troubled by a common report that Richard was living and in Scotland, and he knew that his own title was defective. On grounds like these, plots were built up; but none succeeded.

5. Throughout the entire reign a Welshman named **Owen Glendower** maintained his independence among the hills. He had been educated in the law-schools of London, and had served as an esquire at the court of Richard II.; but on his return to Wales, where his superior learning gained for him the reputation of a wizard, he found that a part of his estate had been seized by Lord Grey of Ruthyn, a near friend of the King; and his anger drove him to rebel.

6. Severe measures were now adopted against the Lollards. In 1401 the first **Statute of Heretics** was passed, giving power to bishops to imprison heretics, and to hand over to the civil power those who refused to

1401 A.D.

---

[1] In the reign of Richard II. Windsor Castle was completed, the workmen being obliged, by the odious system of purveyance, to give their services for nothing. Peers were now first created by letters-patent; and for the first time, at the King's coronation, a knight cast down his glove, daring any one to dispute the monarch's claim. This chivalrous ceremony, which then had meaning, still lingers, and is duly performed by the royal champion.

[2] *Henry IV.*—Grandson of Edward III., and son of John of Gaunt. Married (1) Mary of Hereford, (2) Jane of Navarre. Reigned 14 years.

recant, in order that they might be burned. The first victim of this persecution was the Rev. **William Sawtre,** chaplain of St Oswith's in London. Condemned for preaching heresy, after the tenets of the Lollards, this priest, the first English martyr on the Protestant side, was unfrocked and burned at the stake in Smithfield.

7. A Scottish war was one of Henry's first undertakings. The old hostility of the Border Lords, Douglas and Percy, flamed out anew. On Nesbit Moor and at Homildon Hill near Wooler, the Scots suffered defeat. **1402** A.D. In the latter battle Douglas was taken prisoner.

8. Henry's most troublesome enemies were the Percies, father and son. The father was Earl of Northumberland; the son, from his dashing and fiery spirit, was named **Hotspur.** It is uncertain why they drew the sword against the monarch whom they had helped to place on the throne. Perhaps one cause may be found in Henry's refusal to ransom from the Welsh Sir Edmund Mortimer, Hotspur's brother-in-law. Hotspur took the field, and was joined by Glendower and the Scots. The King met them at **Shrewsbury.** The battle was long and bloody, but was decided in favour of Henry by the death of Hotspur. Northumberland, who had been detained from the field by illness, submitted at once, and was pardoned; but revolting again, he led a wandering life for many years in Scotland and Wales, and was at last slain in a skirmish at Bramham Moor, near Tadcaster in Yorkshire (1408 A.D.). **1403** A.D.

9. With France a dispute arose about the jewels and the dowry of the widowed Isabella; which, according to agreement, should have been returned on her husband's death. The English King met the demand by a counter-claim for the ransom of John, who had been captured at Poitiers. For some time there was no open declaration of war; but the French nobles were allowed to hurl insulting challenges at Henry, and even to ravage his coasts in their privateers.

10. Two events, however, gave Henry the ascendency over both Scotland and France. James, the eldest surviving son of the Scottish King, when on his way to the schools of France, being driven by a storm on the English **1405** A.D.

coast, was captured, and was imprisoned at Pevensey (Sussex), and afterwards at Windsor. The murder of the Duke of Orleans kindled in France a civil war between the adherents of the houses of Orleans and Burgundy. Henry, becoming in turn the ally of each, regained the sovereignty of Aquitaine, Poitou, and Angouleme.

1411 A.D.

11. Henry's declining years were vexed by the vicious conduct of his **eldest son**; who, however, sometimes showed gleams of a better nature. Once, when Chief-Justice Gascoigne had sentenced to imprisonment a riotous companion of the Prince, the royal youth drew his sword on the judge; who, nothing daunted, sent him too to prison; thus vindicating the power of the laws even over the royal family. The Prince submitted with a good grace, and bore no malice against Gascoigne, whom he afterwards treated with much kindness. Again: hearing that some unguarded words had excited a suspicion that he aimed at the crown, this Prince entered his father's chamber, and casting himself at his feet, held out a dagger, demanding death rather than disgrace.

1413 A.D.

12. Fits of epilepsy wore out the strength of Henry at a comparatively early age. The last seized him at Westminster, and he was buried at Canterbury.[1]

13. Step by step the **Commons** were extending their power. They confirmed the privilege by which they and their servants were free from arrest or imprisonment. They secured the right of presenting their petitions by word of mouth, instead of writing them. The addresses from the Speaker's chair took a bolder tone. They established their claim to vote supplies of money, and to inquire into the expenditure. The insecurity of Henry's position made him so dependent on Parliament that he agreed not to raise aids without the assent of Lords and Commons.

14. *HENRY V.*[2]—The riotous Prince Hal was suddenly transformed into the brave and spirited King Henry V. His earliest

[1] The earliest mention of cannon in England occurs in the narrative of the siege of Berwick by Henry IV. in 1405; in which we are told that a shot from a great gun shattered one of the towers so much that the gates were thrown open by the alarmed defenders.

[2] *Henry V.*—Son of Henry IV. and Mary of Hereford. Married Catherine of France. Reigned 9 years.

acts were to discard his old companions; to call around him the wisest of the land, conspicuous among whom was Sir William Gascoigne; to set free the Earl of March; and to restore the Percy estates to the exiled son of Hotspur.

15. Early in this reign the **Lollards** drew upon themselves the royal anger, by their efforts to effect religious reform. Chief among them was Sir John Oldcastle, the Lord of Cobham. He had been one of the Prince's former intimates, and some have considered him the original of Shakespeare's Falstaff; but repenting of his follies, he amended his life, and made his castle of Cowling in Kent the central mission-station of Lollardism. **1414** A.D.

16. Arundel, the primate, summoned him; but he refused to appear. He was then captured, and borne to the dungeons of the Tower by the soldiers of Henry; who, seeking to please the clergy, proclaimed the heresy, as it was called, a crime. Escaping, Oldcastle gathered his followers in St. Giles's Fields; but the vigilance of the King, who burst upon their meeting at the dead of night, scattered the Lollards. The leader fled, but many of those who were taken were doomed to death; and, three years afterwards, Oldcastle, who had left his hiding-place to join the invading Scots, was burned as a felon and a heretic. **1417** A.D.

QUESTIONS.—1. How did Richard's absolute power lead to his fall? How had he alienated each class?

2. What led to a revolution? What did Hereford return to claim? Where did he land? How many men had he when he reached London? Where was Richard? What did he find on reaching Milford Haven?

3. Where did he become Hereford's prisoner? What ceremony then took place? Where did Richard die? When?

4. What dread beset the new King? What did he do with the Earl of March? What report troubled him?

5. What Welshman was in revolt during the entire reign? What drove him to rebel?

6. Against whom were severe measures now adopted? What statute was passed in 1401? Who was the first victim of the persecution?

7. What was one of Henry's earliest undertakings? What battles were fought? Who was made prisoner?

8. Who were Henry's most troublesome enemies? What was probably one cause of their revolt? By whom was Hotspur joined? What battle was fought? What decided the victory? What was Northumberland's fate?

9. What led to a dispute with France? How was the quarrel carried on?

10. What event gave Henry the ascendency over Scotland? How did he regain several French provinces?

11. By what were Henry's declining years vexed? Mention incidents which betokened a better nature?

12. Of what did Henry die? When? Where was he buried?

13. How were the Commons extending their power? What forced Henry to submit to Parliament?

14. What change came over Henry V. on his accession? What were his earliest acts?
15. Who incurred the royal anger? Who was their chief? How did he offend the clergy?
16. Where was Oldcastle imprisoned? What was his end?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. **1399.**—The Mongol Tartars, under Tamerlane, took **Delhi**, and overran Hindustan till 1402. This laid the foundation of the Mogul (*i.e.*, Mongol) dynasty in India, which began with Baber, a descendant of Tamerlane, in 1525, and continued, with Delhi as its capital, till 1803, when it became tributary to Great Britain. In the same year (1399) Timûr conquered and ravaged Persia.

2. **1402.**—The Sultan besieged **Constantinople**, but the approach of Tamerlane (see 1399) through Asia Minor forced him to raise the siege; and he was defeated and taken prisoner by the Tartars in Galatia. Tamerlane is said to have sent the Sultan to Samarcand in Turkestan, in a cage.

3. **1415.**—**John Huss** and **Jerome** of Prague, two of the earliest reformers, were burned at the stake at Prague, the capital of Bohemia. An insurrection ensued; and in 1419 the Hussites took up arms, and formed themselves into a political party, which waged war with the German Empire for seventeen years.

QUESTIONS.—1. Who founded the Mogul dynasty in India? Who was the first of the line? When did it end?—2. What forced the Sultan to raise the siege of Constantinople in 1402? What was the fate of the Sultan?—3. Who were the two early Bohemian reformers? Where were they burned? What followed? How long did the Hussites wage war with the German Empire?

CHAPTER XVI.

THE SECOND FRENCH WAR.

1. Henry's Claim to the French Crown.
2. His Campaign in France.
3. Agincourt.
4. Extent of the Victory.
5. The Effects in England.
6. The Treaty of Troyes.
7. Renewal of the War.
8. Death of Henry V.
9. The Regency.
10. Bedford's Difficulties.
11. The Siege of Orleans.
12. Joan of Arc.
13. Death of the Maid.
14. Decline of English Power in France
15. Surrender of Anjou, Maine, and Normandy.
16. Expulsion of the English from France.

1. THE title "King of France" was claimed until lately by the Monarchs of England; but Henry V. was the only English Sovereign who really deserved the name. Taking advantage of the civil war which still convulsed France, he revived the claim

of Edward III.[1] to the French crown. For answer there came a load of tennis-balls—a reference to the frivolous character which Henry had acquired in his youth. Stung by the insult, the English King prepared for battle. The Duke of Bedford was appointed Regent; the royal jewels were pawned; loans were exacted; and the Barons, much to their delight, were called to arms.

2. A fleet bore Henry with 30,000 soldiers from Southampton to the mouth of the Seine. He took **Harfleur**, a strong fortress on the right bank of the river, in five weeks; and then, with an army reduced to one-half its former number by wounds and sickness, he formed the daring resolve of reaching Calais by the same route as that by which the troops of Edward III. had marched to victory. He found the bridges of the Somme broken down, and the fords defended by lines of sharp stakes; but, after a delay of some days, an unguarded point was discovered high up the stream, near St. Quentin. Crossing rapidly, he moved straight upon Calais, while the Constable of France awaited his approach before the village of **Agincourt.** It was a dark and rainy night, when the weary English saw before them the red light of the French watch-fires.

3. One hundred thousand French lay there. The odds were seven to one. But Crecy was not far distant, and the memory of former glory stirred every English heart. The invincible archers led the way in the early morning. With a cheer they rushed on, bearing in addition to their usual weapons long sharp stakes. These they fixed obliquely before them, so that a wall of wooden pikes met the French charge; and, thus protected against the French cavalry, they poured in their deadly arrows. Then slinging their bows behind them and drawing their swords, they burst

Oct. 25, 1415 A.D.

[1] *The claim of Edward III.*—That claim was that Edward's mother was daughter of Philip IV.; but it was futile, because a descendant of Philip's eldest son was still alive. Besides, the French law excluded females from the succession. But even if Edward's claim had been good, Henry V. had no right to it. A reference to the genealogical tree on page 159 will show that the House of Mortimer, descended from Lionel, Edward the Third's second son, had a prior claim. The House of Lancaster got the English crown by a revolution, not by inheritance. A revolution in England could not change the line of succession to the crown of France.

with the men-at-arms upon the breaking ranks; and the first, the second, and the third divisions gave way in succession.

4. Henry fought in the thickest of the battle; and, though mace and sabre were levelled at him oftener than once, he escaped unhurt. The confusion caused by the tactics of the English King, who had secretly sent a body of archers to lie in ambush on the French flank, and another detachment to set the barns of a neighbouring village on fire, completed the rout. The Constable of France and ten thousand knights and soldiers fell on that fatal day: the victors lost only sixteen hundred men.

5. Without following up this terrible blow, Henry crossed to Dover. No welcome seemed too warm for him. The people rushed into the sea to meet his ship; his journey to London was through shouting crowds and beneath waving banners. The Parliament, unasked, voted him large sums, and granted to him for life a tax on wool and leather. The King had so

dazzled his people by the lustre of his victories, that they could not deny his requests. At no time were supplies of money[1] more freely voted than in this reign. But in return for their liberality the Commons gained the important constitutional point, that no law should have force unless it had received their assent.

6. The war was renewed in 1417. Slowly but surely the King of England extended his conquests, until the fall of **Rouen**, after a siege of six months, laid Normandy at his feet. His path to the French throne was opened by an unforeseen occurrence. The Duke of Burgundy was foully murdered; and his faction, thirsting for revenge, threw their whole weight on Henry's side. He was thus enabled to dictate terms of peace to the French monarch, and the Treaty of **Troyes**[2] was framed. Its leading conditions were:—1. That Henry should receive in marriage the French princess Catherine; 2. That he should be Regent during the life of the imbecile Charles; 3. That he should succeed to the French throne on the death of that prince. **1419** A.D. **1420** A.D.

7. A short visit to England with his bride was suddenly clouded by sad news, which recalled him to France. The Dauphin, reïnforced by a large body of Scots, under the Earl of Buchan, had routed the English troops at Beaugé, and had slain the Duke of Clarence, Henry's brother. In hope that the Scots would not fight against their own King, the English Sovereign led into battle the captive James. The hope was vain; but, ever invincible, Henry drove his foe into Bourges,[3] and paralyzed all hostile efforts by the capture of Meaux, a stronghold near Paris.

8. Henry was now within sight of the goal of his ambition. He was master of Northern France to the banks of the Loire; a son had been lately born to inherit his honours and his name; the splendour of his court at the Louvre far outshone the petty pomp of the real King. But in the very noon of his glory he died at Paris. In gorgeous state his re- **1422** A.D.

[1] The yearly revenue was nearly £56,000, but the expenditure often passed that sum. Calais alone is said to have cost close upon £20,000 a year.

[2] *Troyes.*—On the Seine, 90 miles south-east of Paris.

[3] *Bourges.*—Sixty miles south-east of Orleans.

mains were borne to England, and were laid in the vault of Westminster.[1]

9. *HENRY VI.*[2]—The successor to the throne was an infant nine months old. A council of twenty, presided over by Henry Beaufort, Bishop of Winchester, a son of John of Gaunt, managed the government. The **Duke of Bedford** was made
1422 Regent; and, during his absence in France, his brother
A.D. Humphrey of Gloucester bore the title, "Protector of the Realm of England." One of the earliest events of the reign was the release of King James of Scotland after a captivity of eighteen years. He took with him an English wife, Jane Beaufort, daughter of the Earl of Somerset (1424).

10. After the death of the French King, which followed close on that of Henry V., the Dauphin assumed the title, Charles VII. The Loire now separated the English provinces from the French. Bedford nobly maintained the honour of England in the Battle of Crevant[3] (1423), while Salisbury won laurels at Verneuil[4] (1424). But Gloucester, having married Jacqueline of Hainault, claimed a large part of the Netherlands as her inheritance. The Duke of Brabant, also claiming to be the husband of this princess, opposed the demand of Gloucester, and was supported by the great Duke of Burgundy, who thus became estranged from the English alliance. At home, too, Gloucester quarrelled with Beaufort, and so Bedford's hands grew weak.

11. In 1428 it was resolved in council, contrary, we are told, to the will of the Regent, that the English army should cross the Loire, and ravage the provinces which owned the sway of Charles. As a preparatory step, **Orleans** was besieged. While the English troops lay before the walls, a skirmish took place

[1] Henry's widow, Catherine, married Owen Tudor, a Welsh gentleman. Their eldest son, created Earl of Richmond, was the father of Henry VII., the first Sovereign of the Tudor line.

In Henry's reign the famous Richard Whittington, a merchant of London, was for the third time Lord Mayor of London. He made a great fortune by the voyages of a ship called the *Cat*—a name which has given rise to the well-known nursery tale, "Whittington and his Cat."

The foundation of the British Navy may be ascribed to this reign; for Henry caused a ship of considerable size to be built for him at Bayonne. The fleets already spoken of were either merchant vessels or ships hired from foreign states.

[2] *Henry VI.*—Son of Henry V. and Catherine of France. Married Margaret of Anjou. Reigned 39 years.

[3] *Crevant.*—100 miles east of Orleans.

[4] *Verneuil.*—90 miles north-west of Orleans.

which has received a strange name,—"The battle of herrings." At Rouverai[1] an English knight beat back a body of French cavalry, which attacked him as he was escorting a train of provision-cars to the camp of the besiegers. Salted herrings formed a large part of the stores, and hence arose the name. This success, and the energy with which the English carried on the siege, dispirited the French, who now looked upon Orleans as lost. **1429** A.D.

12. Suddenly there came a change. **Joan of Arc,** servant in a village inn of Lorraine, sought the presence of the French King at Chinon,[2] and there proclaimed that she had a mission from Heaven to drive the English from

[1] *Rouverai.* — Twenty miles north-west of Orleans.

[2] *Chinon* — One hundred and ten miles south-west of Orleans.

Orleans and to lead Charles to Rheims.[1] Either believing her story or desirous to work upon the superstition of his soldiers, the Monarch paid her every honour. Clad in white armour, she rode on a black steed to the rescue of Orleans. She passed the English lines, when the sentinels had deserted their posts during a thunder-storm; took the fortress before the gate, and drove the English from before the walls; thus winning her title,—"The Maid of Orleans."

1429 A.D.

13. In two months more Charles was crowned at Rheims, and her mission was fulfilled. But soon began a reäction. In a sortie from the town of Compiègne,[2] she was pulled from her horse by an archer, and made prisoner. She was sold to the English Regent; and after twelve months' imprisonment, was burned as a witch in the market-place of Rouen.

1431 A.D.

14. The young Henry was now crowned at Westminster and at Paris,—a step considered necessary after the coronation of Charles at Rheims. But the crowning at Paris was an empty form. A congress was held at **Arras**[3] in 1435, at which the clergy strove in vain to bring about peace. Then two severe blows shook the English power in France: the great Bedford died; and the Duke of Burgundy made peace and alliance with France. The loss of Paris speedily followed; and in 1444 the English were glad to make a truce for two years.

1435 A.D.

15. In the following year Henry married the beautiful and high-spirited Margaret, daughter of Renè, Duke of Anjou and Maine. These provinces were then, by a reversal of the ordinary custom, restored to the father of the bride. They were called the keys of Normandy; and deep murmurs resounded through England when they were severed from the crown. French troops poured across the Loire; and soon Rouen and all Normandy submitted.

16. From the north of France Charles turned to the south. Gate after gate of the Gascon[4] cities opened to his triumphant

---

[1] *Rheims.*—Ninety miles north-east of Paris.

[2] *Compiègne.*—Sixty miles north of Paris.

[3] *Arras.*—Forty miles north of Amiens. (See *Map*, p. 166.)

[4] *Gascon.*—Gascony was between the Garonne and the Pyrenees.

march, until in 1451 the banner of England waved nowhere, from the Strait of Dover to the Pyrenees, except on the citadel of Calais. Thus ended the dream of an English empire in France.[1]

1451 A.D.

QUESTIONS.—1. Who was the only English Sovereign who really deserved the title, King of France? What claim did he revive? What answer did the Dauphin send him? Who was appointed Regent? How did Henry raise money for the war?

2. What French fortress did he take? What daring resolve did he form? Where did the Constable of France await him?

3. How many were there in the French army? How many in the English? Who began the attack? What means had they of protecting themselves against the French cavalry? How were the three divisions of the French army broken?

4. Where did Henry fight? What completed the rout? How many of the enemy fell? How many of the victors?

5. How was Henry received in England? How did the Parliament treat him? What did the Commons gain in return for their liberality?

6. When was the war renewed? What secured Normandy to Henry? What opened his path to the French throne? Give the terms of the Treaty of Troyes.

7. What forced Henry to return to France? What success had he?

8. What was Henry's position then? When did he die?

9. How old was his successor? Who managed the government? Who was made Regent? What position had Gloucester? What was one of the earliest events of the new reign?

10. Who assumed the title of King of France? What separated the English from the French provinces? What victories did the English gain? What broke the English alliance with Burgundy? What still further weakened Bedford's hands?

11. Why was Orleans besieged? What skirmish took place near the city?

12. Who revived the hopes of the French? How did she win her title, "The Maid of Orleans?"

13. What occurred two months later? Where was the Maid captured? To whom was she sold? How did the English treat her?

14. Who was then crowned at Paris? What two great blows fell on the English in France? What did the English make in 1444?

15. Whom did Henry VI. marry? What custom was reversed on the occasion? What effect had the step in England? What province soon submitted to Charles?

16. When and how did the dream of an English empire in France end?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. **1417.**—Frederic VI. of Nürnberg, founder of the reigning dynasty of **Hohenzollern** in Prussia, became Margrave of Brandenburg by purchase from the Emperor of Germany. They became Dukes in 1525, Kings in 1701; and in 1871 the King of Prussia became head of the new German Empire.

2. 1420.—The Portuguese seized Madeira and the Canary Islands.

3. 1422.—The Sultan again besieged Constantinople, but without

[1] *John Talbot*, Earl of Shrewsbury, the last of the great English commanders reared by this Hundred Years' War (1351–1451), died at Castillon in the Gironde in 1453, when attempting to recover Gascony.

success. He made peace with the Emperor in 1425. When the next Emperor, John, was threatened by the Turks, he solicited aid from Rome and the Western States against them, but in vain.

4. 1436.—Philip (the Good), Duke of Burgundy, wrested **Holland** from his niece.

5. 1437.—Duke Albert of **Austria,** having acquired by marriage the crowns of Bohemia and Hungary, was elected Emperor of Germany as Albert II.

6. 1448.—Constantine XIII., the last of the Eastern Emperors, began to reign at Constantinople.

QUESTIONS.—1. Who was the founder of the Prussian House of Hohenzollern? How did he obtain Brandenburg? When? With what title? When did the title become Duke? When King? When Emperor?—2. What acquisition did the Portuguese make in 1420?—3. What was the result of the Turkish siege of Constantinople in 1422?—4. Who seized Holland in 1436?—5. How did Albert of Austria acquire Bohemia and Hungary? When did he become Emperor of Germany?—6. Who was the last of the Eastern Emperors?

CHAPTER XVII.

WARS OF THE ROSES—DESTRUCTION OF FEUDALISM.

1. Death of Gloucester and Beaufort.
2. Execution of Suffolk.
3. Jack Cade's Rebellion.
4. The Rioters in London.
5. Somerset and York.
6. The Wars of the Roses.
7. First Battle.
8. York Claims the Throne.
9. The Lancastrian Triumph.
10. The Yorkist Triumph.
11. Supremacy of the House of Lords.
12. Capture of King Henry.
13. Edward's Marriage.
14. Quarrel with Warwick.
15. Flight of Edward.
16. Overthrow of Warwick.
17. Tewkesbury.

1. THE great pillars of the House of Lancaster were the Duke of **Gloucester,** and his uncle, Cardinal **Beaufort.** Though rivals for political fame, they united in upholding the throne of Henry; who, as he grew to manhood, gave every day clearer signs of a weak intellect. But they died within six weeks of each other; and then visions of the throne began to rise before the mind of **Richard, Duke of York.** Sprung by his mother from the second son, by his father from the fifth son, of Edward III., he was heir-presumptive to the throne; for Henry as yet had no child.

1447 A.D.

2. The removal of a faithful minister from Henry's councils gave new colour to the hopes of York. The loss of the French provinces had excited great discontent throughout England; and the **Duke of Suffolk,** by whose advice Anjou and Maine

had been restored to Renè, was marked as an object of special hatred. He was impeached and banished. He left Ipswich with the hope of being allowed to land at Calais; but a warship bore down on his frail craft, and he was summoned on board "The Nicholas of the Tower;" where the captain received him with the words, "Welcome, traitor!" Two days afterwards, a boat reached the side, carrying a headsman, a block, and a rusty sword; and on this strange scaffold Suffolk died. **1450** A.D.

3. This was a heavy blow to Henry. The rumour of preparations for a terrible revenge reached the men of Kent, who had furnished the ship which seized Suffolk. They were the descendants of those who had followed Tyler to Smithfield. Headed by **Jack Cade,** they marched to Blackheath, and sent to the Council a "Complaint," in which they demanded the removal of the King's ministers, economy of the public money, and freedom of election. The Council refused to receive the "Complaint." The rebels had then recourse to arms. The King's troops were defeated at Sevenoaks, and their leader was slain. Cade, arraying himself in the armour of the fallen knight, marched to London; upon which Henry withdrew to Kenilworth. **1450** A.D.

4. Unresisted the rebels entered the city, Cade cutting the ropes of the drawbridge with his sword as he passed. For two days they held the city, but on the third the pillage of some houses roused the Londoners, who seized the bridge and held it gallantly for six hours, when a short truce was made. The Bishop of Winchester took advantage of this interval to offer a free pardon to all who should return to their homes at once; and Cade was left with scarcely a follower. A second time he tried to raise a force, but failed; and fleeing, he was discovered and slain in a garden, near Lewes in Sussex. No more was heard of the complaints of the men of Kent.

5. The birth of a son to Henry gave hope for a time of the stability of his line; but the anger of the people was rekindled by the restoration to power of Beaufort, Duke of Somerset, who was blamed for the loss of Normandy. At this critical point the King was seized with a fit of insanity, and the reins of government were transferred by Parliament from the hands

of Somerset to those of York, with the title of Protector. This, however, did not last long; for the recovery of Henry deprived York of his office, and restored to power Somerset, who had been thrown into the Tower.

6. The Duke of York then appealed to arms, and the famous **Wars of the Roses** began. They were so called from the badges of the rival armies: the ensign of the House of York being a white, that of the House of Lancaster a red rose. The chief supporters of York were the Earl of Salisbury, and his son, the Earl of Warwick. This great contest was essentially a war of nobles, in which the mass of the people took but a slight part. It shattered Feudalism in England.

1455 A.D.

7. The first battle was fought at **St. Albans** in 1455, when the Lancastrians were defeated, and the King was made prisoner. He was, however, soon released, and a pretended reconciliation followed. But, the war being renewed, the Yorkists were again victorious, at Bloreheath in Staffordshire (1459). At Northampton, Henry was a second time made captive, by the Yorkists under Warwick (1460).

8. Now, for the first time, York, hitherto struggling only for the Protectorship, laid claim to the throne, as the representative of the eldest surviving branch of the royal family. The sympathies of the people were undoubtedly with York. Disastrous failure abroad, and misgovernment involving curtailment of freedom at home, had destroyed the faith of the commercial classes in the House of Lancaster. The question was debated in Parliament, and an arrangement was made that Henry should reign during his life, and that the crown should then pass to York and his heirs.

9. This compromise was rejected by the Lancastrians. Margaret of Anjou, indignant that her son Edward, Prince of Wales, should be thus excluded from the throne, called her supporters to her side, and routed the Yorkists at **Wakefield Green** in Yorkshire; where, for the first time, the Red Rose triumphed (1460). Here the Duke of York was slain; and, according to the barbarous fashion of the time, his head, adorned with a paper crown, was fixed on the walls of York.

10. This loss, instead of dispiriting, roused the Yorkists to

PLACES OF INTEREST.

1455. St. Albans (Herts).
1459. Bloreheath (Staffordshire).
1460. Northampton.
" Wakefield Green (Yorkshire).
1461. Mortimer's Cross (Herefordshire).
" St. Albans (Herts).
1461. Towton (Yorkshire).
1464. Hedgley Moor (Northumb.).
" Hexham (Northumb.).
1471. Ravenspur (Yorkshire).
" Barnet (Middlesex).
" Tewkesbury (Gloucester).
1485. Bosworth-field (Leicester).

fiercer efforts. Edward, Earl of March, the son of the fallen Duke, succeeded to the title and the claims of his father. He was a brave and handsome youth of nineteen, and the hearts of the people leaned to him. At Mortimer's Cross in Herefordshire he swept the royalist troops before him (1461). A few days later, Margaret, defeating Warwick in the second battle of St. Albans (1461), released the King from confinement. But, when Edward marched to London, he was received by the citizens with shouts of joy. The Parliament having declared that Henry had forfeited the throne when he joined the army of the Queen, the young Duke was at once proclaimed King, with the title of Edward IV.

March 4, 1461 A.D.

11. This change was effected by the vote of the **House of Lords** alone. That House still formed the governing body. The Commons gave *assent*, not advice; but they granted the supplies, and in this lay their strength, or what became their strength at a later time.[1] Under the Lancastrian Kings, however, the House of Commons did not really represent the people. Freedom of election was interfered with both by the Crown and by the Barons. By an Act passed in the reign of Henry VI.,[2] the franchise, or right of voting, was limited in counties to those owning a freehold worth at the least forty shillings a year. This was intended to reduce the number of voters and the influence of the people.

12. *EDWARD IV.*[3]—The **Wars of the Roses** were not yet ended. The north remained faithful to Henry; London and the south had declared for Edward. But a victory, won at Towton in Yorkshire, amid falling snow, established the kingdom of Edward. Margaret sailed to France in hope of aid. Again the shattered ranks of the Lancastrians were arrayed; but at Hedge-

1461 A.D.

1464 A.D.

[1] The petitions of the Parliament were now framed into what we still call "Acts of Parliament,"—a plan intended to prevent the King from making any change in the law before he gave his assent to its passing.

[2] In this reign Eton College and King's College, Cambridge, were founded (1440); and the establishment of Glasgow University followed in 1451. This was the era of the invention of printing. In 1442 Faust printed from wooden blocks. In 1444 Guttenberg cut types from metal. In 1450 the roller press was invented. In 1452 the types of Schoeffer, cast in moulds, came into use.

[3] *Edward IV.*—Thrice-great-grandson of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, son of Edward III. Married Lady Elizabeth Grey (or Woodville). Reigned 22 years.

ley Moor and Hexham in Northumberland they were again broken. Henry fled from the field of Hexham to the wilds of Lancashire, where for more than a year he eluded pursuit; but he was taken at last and thrown into the Tower.

13. In 1464 Edward avowed his marriage with Elizabeth, widow of Sir John Grey, and daughter of Sir Richard Woodville, afterwards Earl Rivers. When she became Queen, her relatives, who were all Lancastrians, were married **1464** to the richest heirs and heiresses. This incensed the A.D. nobles, especially the haughty Nevilles, of which family the Earl of Warwick was head. Warwick, known in history as the "**King-maker**," was chief minister, and was also governor of Calais, then the richest office in the King's gift, and he could not tamely brook the loss of his influence with Edward.

14. The breach, growing daily wider, ended in an open quarrel. Warwick, aided by the Duke of Clarence, his son-in-law, and brother of the King, raised an insurrection among the men of York and Lincoln. But the Earl and the Duke were forced to flee to the Court of Louis XI., where they met Margaret of Anjou. Warwick and Margaret had now a common cause, and they united to dethrone Edward. The union was cemented by the marriage of Prince Edward, Margaret's son, to Anne, daughter of Warwick.

15. After an absence of five months, the King-maker landed without resistance near Plymouth. The hopes of the Lancastrians revived, when 6,000 men cast the white **1470** roses from their bonnets and cried, "God bless King A.D. Harry!" Edward fled to Flanders, and Henry was brought from his cell to wear the crown once more.

16. The Duke of Burgundy was married to a sister of Edward, and from him the exiled Prince received men, money, and ships, and landed in a few months at Ravenspur in Yorkshire. When Edward reached Nottingham 60,000 men marched under his banner. His brother Clarence, long an ad- **1471** herent of Warwick, rejoined the Yorkist ranks, and the A.D. army was soon within the walls of London. The decisive battle was fought on Easter Sunday 1471 at **Barnet** (Middlesex), where the Lancastrians were scattered, leaving every one of their leaders, Warwick included, dead on the field.

17. On that very day Margaret and her son landed at Weymouth. Three weeks later, their army was cut to pieces and they were made prisoners at **Tewkesbury** in Glouce-
1471 stershire. They were brought before the victor; and
A.D. the heart of Margaret now sank beneath the heaviest blow of all, when she saw the face of her son bruised by the iron glove of Edward, and the daggers of Clarence and Gloucester plunged in his heart. After five years in English prisons, Margaret was ransomed by Louis of France: she survived Tewkesbury eleven years. Henry died in the Tower, probably by violence, on the day of Edward's triumphal entry into London.

QUESTIONS.—1. Who were the great pillars of the House of Lancaster? Of what did Henry give signs as he grew up? When did Gloucester and Beaufort die? Who then began to aspire to the throne? What claim had he?

2. What gave new colour to the hopes of York? Why was Suffolk unpopular? What was his fate?

3. What rumour alarmed the men of Kent? Where did they march? Under whom? What were their demands? What success had they? Where did they then go?

4. How long did they hold the city? What roused the Londoners against them? What induced them to return home? What was the end of Cade?

5. What revived the hopes of the Lancastrians? What rekindled the anger of the people? What led to Somerset's removal? Who was put in his place? What took place on Henry's recovery?

6. What step did York then take? What wars began? The origin of the name? Who were the chief supporters of York? What was the essential nature of the contest? What was its result?

7. What was the first battle? Its result? Who were victorious at Blore-heath? Where was Henry taken prisoner a second time?

8. What did York then claim? With whom did the people sympathize? Why? What arrangement did the Parliament make?

9. Who rejected this compromise? Who called the Lancastrians together? Where did she defeat the Yorkists? Who was slain?

10. What effect had this on the Yorkists? Who was now their leader? What victory did he gain? Where did Margaret gain a victory a few days later? Who declared for Edward? What did Parliament ordain?

11. By whose vote alone was this change made? What was the sole function of the Commons? Wherein lay their real strength? How was it that the Commons did not really represent the people?

12. What part of England adhered to Henry? What victory established the kingdom of Edward? Who were victorious at Hedgeley Moor and Hexham? Where was Henry captured?

13. What alienated the nobles from Edward? Whom in particular? By what name is Warwick known in history?

14. By whom was Warwick joined? Where did they raise an insurrection? With what result? With whom did Warwick now join? How was their union cemented?

15. Where did Warwick land? What was Edward forced to do? Who then received the crown?

16. Who equipped Edward for an invasion? Where did he land? How many marched under his banner? Who rejoined his ranks? Where was the decisive battle fought? Who won?

17. Who landed at Weymouth the same day? Where were they defeated and captured? What cruel sight had Margaret then to witness? What became of her? On what day did Henry die?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. **1451.**—Mohammed II. became Sultan, and renewed the war against the Eastern Empire.

2. **1453.**—Frederic III., Emperor of Germany (head of the House of Hapsburg), created Austria an archduchy, with sovereign power.

3. **1453.**—**Constantinople** was taken by the **Turks** under Mohammed II. This event marks the extinction of the Eastern Empire, and **the close of the history of the Middle Ages.** The Greeks resident in the East were now scattered over Western Europe, bearing with them their manuscripts. This led to the revival of learning; and thus the seeds of the Reformation were sown.

4. **1458.**—The Turks, under Mohammed II., took Athens, and conquered part of Greece.

5. **1462.**—Ivan III. (the Great) became **Czar of Russia.** He was the first to assume that title. Previously the rulers of Russia had been called Dukes of Moscow.

QUESTIONS.—1. Who became Sultan in 1451? What war did he renew?—2. Who made Austria an archduchy? When?—3. When did the Turks take Constantinople? What does this event mark? How did it lead to the revival of learning?—4. What country did the Turks next attack? Under what leader?—5. Who was the first Czar of Russia? When did he assume the title? What was the previous title of the Russian rulers?

CHAPTER XVIII.

CAXTON AND THE PRINTING-PRESS.

1. Caxton's Early Years.
2. Progress of Printing in Germany.
3. Caxton's First Book.
4. The First Book Printed in England.
5. Caxton's Later Years.
6. Fruits of Caxton's Labours.

1. THE name of **William Caxton** is associated with an event, the greatest not merely in the reign of Edward IV., but in the whole mediæval history of England—an event which, standing midway between the days of Wyclif and the days of Tyndale, displays, more clearly than any other landmark of our story, the sure yet silent approach of the Reformation dawn. In the year 1476, William Caxton set up a printing-press in the Almonry at Westminster. He was then probably sixty-four years of age.

From a childhood spent in the Weald of Kent, he had passed while yet a boy to learn a trade in London. There he had spent many busy years, listening to the gossip of a mercer's shop, which was often thronged with buyers and sellers from abroad. Happily for England, Flanders attracted him strongly, and he crossed the sea.

2. At different places in the basin of the Rhine—especially in a forest at Haarlem, and in the vault of a deserted monastery at Strasburg—**a new art** was beginning to be practised, which excited but little attention for a few years, except in the way of arousing superstitious fears that the workmen had sold themselves to Satan. This we know to have been the common way of accounting, in the Middle Ages, for the possession of superior knowledge or the power of inventing new machines. A man called Faust went to Paris with Bibles for sale, in which certain letters were red. He asked only a fraction of the usual price, and had at command in a little while new copies to replace those he sold. The legend of "The Devil and Dr. Faustus" and the writing in blood grew, as a matter of course, from these things.

3. There were, however, a few men in Europe who penetrated the secret of these magical books. Caxton was one of them. So far as we know, he had begun authorship before he knew anything of printing. Joining the household of the English bride who went over to **Bruges** in 1468 to share the coronet of Burgundy with Duke Charles, he resumed at the request of this lady a translation of a French "History of Troy," which a touch of *ennui* had led him to begin. At Cologne he probably learned to print; and there, in 1471, he brought out the book, which added a purer lustre to the year of Barnet Heath. It was the book he had written at Bruges—a translation into English of the work of Raoul le Fevre, Duke Philip's chaplain.

4. Within the next few years he removed to **Westminster**, where he lived in a three-storied house called the Reed
1477 Pale, on the north side of the Almonry. There was
A.D. published *The Dictes and Notable Wise Sayinges of the Philosophers*, believed to have been notable as being the first-fruits of the transplanted Press. Customers and sight-seers, no doubt, soon flocked to the work-room of the first English

printer. Indeed, a placard in his largest type, inviting buyers to the Reed Pale, is still preserved in Brasenose College, Oxford.

5. His press clanked and his sheets were sent forth with the impress of his types for seventeen years. Edward died. The Princes perished in the Tower, and Richard fell on Bosworth Field. Still the hoary tradesman plied his useful task, little dreaming that the day would come when his name would shine among those of the most illustrious of the land. Six years of the Tudor dynasty passed by, and then he died. His pen had seldom ceased to write for three-and-twenty years; his press had seldom ceased to print for fourteen. **Sixty-eight works,** translated and original, evidenced the industry of his later years.

6. After Caxton's death in 1491 **Wynkyn de Worde** and **Richard Pynson,** both foreigners, and both assistants of our countryman in the Almonry, conducted the printing business in the English metropolis. Books became commoner, and the English people learned to read. With knowledge came light, and light led to freedom. Two things, of which Britain is justly proud, can be traced in the main at least to the old Scriptorium where Caxton erected his clumsy press; and these are, British Literature and British Liberty. If, then, we measure Englishmen by the good they have done their land, what meed of praise shall be deemed enough for the mercer of the Kentish Weald?

QUESTIONS.—1. What is said of the event with which the name of Caxton is associated? What was that event? Give the date. Where was his childhood spent? Where his youth? What country attracted him?

2. What new art was then beginning to be practised in Germany? To what imputation were the workmen engaged in it exposed? What was the origin of the legend of the Devil and Dr. Faustus?

3. Who encouraged Caxton's literary labours? What book did he finish? When was it printed? Where?

4. What was the first book printed in England? What is preserved in Brasenose College, Oxford?

5. How long did he continue to print? How many works did he print?

6. Who conducted the business after Caxton's death? What have been two great results of Caxton's labours?

CHAPTER XIX.

SOCIAL CONDITION—FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

1. Extinction of Villanage.
2. The Government.
3. Manor-houses.
4. Meals.
5. Dramatic Performances.
6. Printing—Literature and Language.
7. Leading Authors.

1. The great social feature of the period was the extinction of **Villanage** or Slavery. From the earliest times this evil had prevailed in England. The Norman Conquest had changed the masters without freeing the slaves. But about the reign of Henry II. the good work began. During three centuries it went on slowly, yet surely,—so slowly, indeed, that it was scarcely remarked by writers of the time. When it was a disgrace to be called an Englishman, Nicholas Breakspear, an Englishman, was made Pope. Among the clergy there were soon found many who had sympathy for the enslaved race; and it became a custom, when a slave-holder was dying, to urge him, by all the authority of the Church, to set free his slaves. The civil war, by breaking the power of the ruling race, aided this great movement, and the opening of the Tudor period saw Villanage abolished in England for ever.

2. The **Government** of the country was in theory then, as it is now, a limited monarchy; but the limitations were slight in practice. It was of a class which grew up in Europe during the Middle Ages; of which, indeed, the English Constitution was the best example. The office of King had become strictly hereditary. He possessed the chief power, and was feudal lord of the whole soil. But three great principles, acted on since the reign of Edward III., limited his power: 1. He could make no law without the consent of Parliament. 2. He could lay on the people no tax without the same consent. 3. He must govern by the laws; and if he broke them his agents and advisers were responsible.

3. Instead of the Norman castles already described, the nobles now began to build large **manor-houses** of wood, decorated with carving and painting. Their rooms were hung with tapestry. In towns, the upper stories jutted out over the lower, so that in narrow streets the fronts of opposite houses

were only a few feet apart. This style may still be noticed in old towns like Chester. The people had not yet learned the value of clear light and fresh air to both mind and body.

4. The higher classes took four **meals** in the day. They rose at about five; took breakfast at seven; dined at ten; supped at four; and at nine had the "livery"—a slight repast of cakes and spiced wine—served in their bed-chambers. The working classes dined at noon. In many places the hour is not very different at present; for, while the leisure of the great permits them to change the hours of their meals, the labouring classes are compelled by their daily toil to keep the same hours in all ages.

5. **Dramatic performances** now took a regular shape. They were acted at first in the churches, chiefly by the clergy, and were then called Miracle Plays, or Mysteries. Although intended to teach the lower classes the history of the Bible, they seem to have been very profane. In the reign of Henry IV. a miracle play, performed in Smithfield, lasted eight days. It began with the Creation, and took in almost all the sacred history. About the time of Henry VI., Moral Plays came into fashion. These were a great improvement on the Mysteries: the actors were laymen, and Scriptural characters were not assumed. They have been called Allegories, since the performers personated Mercy, Justice, Truth, and such qualities. Then followed, in the Tudor period, the introduction of actual characters from history and social life. From the grave portions of a Moral Play came Tragedy; from the lighter, Comedy.

6. The invention of **Printing** effected a complete change in book-making. The black-letter manuscript gave place to the printed volume. The latter, however, had as yet no title-page, no capital letters, and no points except the colon and the period. The words were spelled without attention to anything but their sounds. Hence every writer had his own style of spelling; and very often there were two or three different forms of the same word on one page. The language of the period was slightly different from that used in Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales*. In the *Paston Letters*, or *Bills*, as their writers call them—the correspondence of one of the chief families of Norfolk—we find

many valuable glimpses of the forms of social life prevailing at this period. These letters contain the names of some of the leading men in English history, such as the Earl of Warwick, the Duke of York, and Lord Hastings.

---

7. LEADING AUTHORS OF THE PERIOD—(1399–1485).

MIDDLE ENGLISH.

JAMES I., (1394–1437)—King of Scotland—a prisoner in England for nineteen years—studied Chaucer—wrote poems—only remaining work, *The King's Quhair*, or Book.

JOHN LYDGATE, (flourished about 1420)—a monk of Bury—kept a school of poetry—chief works, *History of Thebes*, and *Siege of Troy*.

SIR JOHN FORTESCUE, (flourished about 1450)—Chief Justice in 1442—chief works, *De Laudibus Legum Angliae*, and *Absolute and Limited Monarchy*.

WILLIAM CAXTON, (1412–1491)—first English printer—wrote or translated about sixty works—among them, *History of Troy*, and *Playe of Chesse*.

QUESTIONS.—1. What was the great social feature of the period during which the Houses of Lancaster and York held the throne? Was slavery introduced at the Conquest? When did the process of emancipation begin? What Englishman attained the Popedom, and when? What custom prevailed among the clergy when called to the death-bed of a slave-holder? When was villanage finally abolished?

2. What was the nature of the English government at this period? What three great principles limited the power of the King?

3. What change took place in the domestic architecture of England? Describe the buildings. Where may this style still be noticed?

4. What was the daily life of the higher classes? At what hour did the working-classes dine? What is meant by the "livery"?

5. What was the difference between a Miracle Play and a Moral Play? Give an idea of the length of some Miracle Plays. What change in dramatic representation took place during the Tudor period?

6. What change took place in book-making? Give a description of the books of this early period. What system of orthography was in use? What is said of the language of the period? In what letters do we find glimpses of the social life of the time?

7. Who wrote *The King's Quhair?* The *Siege of Troy? De Laudibus Legum Angliae?* Name two of the translations of William Caxton.

BOOK III.

ABSOLUTE MONARCHY.

HOUSE OF YORK—CONTINUED.

	A.D.
Edward IV. (great-great-grandson of Edward III.)	1461
Edward V. (son)	1483
Richard III. (uncle)	1483

HOUSE OF TUDOR.

Henry VII.	1485
Henry VIII. (son)	1509
Edward VI. (son)	1547
Mary I. (half-sister)	1553
Elizabeth (half-sister)	1558

HOUSE OF STEWART.

James I. (great-great-grandson of Henry VII.)	1603
Charles I. (son)	1625
[Commonwealth and Protectorate]	1649
Charles II. (son)	1660
James II. (brother)	1685

CHAPTER I.

ASCENDENCY OF THE CROWN.

1. Destruction of Baronial Power.
2. Origin of Benevolences.
3. The Bought Treaty.
4. Murmurs of the People.
5. Death of Clarence.
6. Death of Edward IV.
7. Gloucester Regent.
8. Execution of Rivers and Hastings.
9. Gloucester King.
10. Liberal Promises.
11. Murder of the Princes.
12. The Tudor Marriage Scheme.
13. Fall of Buckingham.
14. Richard's Perplexities.
15. Richmond's Arrival.
16. Bosworth Field.
17. Henry the Seventh's Rivals.
18. Union of the Rival Roses.

1. HITHERTO the Barons had been the most powerful body in the State. The House of Lancaster had been set on the throne by one section of the nobles: it had been displaced by another. But in the deadly struggle of the Wars of the Roses, these two

factions had well-nigh destroyed each other. The only real check on the power of the Crown being thus removed, **the King** became practically **absolute.** Though the influence of the Commons had been steadily growing, it was not yet powerful enough to resist or restrain the King. They had the power to withhold supplies; but that availed little when the King had other means at command for filling his treasury. Of his complete independence in this respect, a French war soon enabled him to give proof.

2. As an excuse for this war, he revived the old claim to the **French crown.** He had strong motives for entering on such an undertaking. He was kinsman by marriage to the Duke of Burgundy, a deadly foe of France. It was his interest to employ in foreign war those who might be inclined to plot against his government, or to stir up the embers of civil strife. Though the confiscations during the civil war had made the King a rich man, he applied to Parliament for money; and Parliament readily voted him supplies. But with these he was not satisfied. To gratify his avarice, he invented a new and most elastic method of raising money. Calling rich subjects before him, he demanded presents of money; which they dared not refuse. These sums he called **benevolences.**

3. After much delay he invaded France, but found his allies unable to give him any aid. In the midst of his uncertainty there came a welcome message from Louis proposing **1475** peace and alliance. At **Pecquigny**[1] a bridge was thrown A.D. across the Somme. Midway the monarchs met, and, shaking hands through a wooden grating, swore to observe the terms of the treaty. The chief conditions were:— 1. That Louis should pay 75,000 crowns at once, and an annuity of 50,000 to Edward during his life: 2. That a truce and free trade should exist between the countries for seven years: 3. That the Dauphin should marry Elizabeth, Edward's eldest daughter. French gold, lavishly scattered among the English courtiers, bought this Treaty of Pecquigny; and many nobles were not ashamed openly to avow themselves the pensioners of Louis.

[1] *Pecquigny.*—On the Somme. (See *Map*, p. 166.)

4. The people of England murmured loudly at the disgraceful end of a war for which they had been heavily taxed, and a slight breath would have kindled an insurrection. Edward had the sense to see this; and his future policy was directed to the support of his throne without drawing from the purses of his people.

5. The death of the Duke of **Clarence** threw a dark stain on the memory of Edward. The brothers had been long estranged, chiefly because Edward prevented the marriage of Clarence with Mary, the rich heiress of Burgundy; and when Thomas Burdett, a friend of the Duke, was executed on a charge of practising "the black art," Clarence loudly blamed the King. In revenge, Edward summoned him before the House of Lords. He received sentence, and in ten days he died within the Tower. A common report said that he was drowned in a butt of Malmsey, a wine of which he was fond.

6. To Edward's great annoyance, the marriage agreed on at the Treaty of Pecquigny was frustrated by the marriage of the Dauphin to Margaret of Burgundy. Edward prepared for war; but a slight illness working on his frame, **1483** which was worn out by debauchery, suddenly assumed A.D. a fatal character. He died in his forty-first year, and was buried at Windsor. His children were—Edward, his successor; Richard, Duke of York; and five daughters, of whom the eldest, Elizabeth, was afterwards married to Henry VII.

7. *EDWARD V.*[1]—As the young King was only twelve years of age, a Regency was necessary. This office was at once assumed by his uncle, **Richard, Duke of Gloucester.** While pretending the purest loyalty towards his royal nephew, Gloucester was busily engaged in clearing his own way to the throne. By his orders, the boy-King was seized at Stony-Stratford, near Northampton, led with the mockery of public honours to London, and cast into the Tower. The Queen-mother was forced to part also with her second son, Richard, Duke of York, who was committed to the same prison; and there the two boys, busied with their sports, lived all unconscious of the dark web which was slowly infolding them.

---

[1] *Edward V.*—Son of Edward IV. Reigned eleven weeks.

8. Gloucester's next step was to remove those nobles who were faithful to the cause of the young Edward. Of these, Earl Rivers and Lord Hastings were the most prominent. The former, a maternal uncle of the King, was distinguished as the patron of Caxton, who printed for him the translation of a French book called *The Sayinges of Philosophers.* Lord Hastings, arrested in the council-room as the accomplice of the Queen and Jane Shore, whom Gloucester charged with witchcraft, was at once beheaded on a block of wood that lay in the chapel-yard of the Tower. On the same day, Lord Rivers was executed, with Lord Richard Grey and Sir Thomas Vaughan, at Pontefract Castle.

9. This done, the Royal Council proclaimed Gloucester **Protector of the Realm.** The Duke of Buckingham met the citizens of London at Guildhall, and declared Edward the Fourth's marriage to have been unlawful, and consequently his children to be illegitimate. The people, who had groaned under the arbitrary government of Edward, were willing to listen to the more liberal promises of his brother. The Parliament then offered the crown to Richard. With feigned reluctance he accepted it, and the reign of Edward V. was at an end.

10. *RICHARD III.*[1]—The new King began his reign, as most usurpers do, by endeavouring to **conciliate popular favour.** He called a Parliament; he declared the arbitrary measures by which Edward IV. had extorted money to be illegal; he raised the rank of many nobles; he remitted forfeitures; and he distributed lavishly the hoards of his late brother. By these means he gathered a band of adherents around his throne; and he aroused in the nation hopes of a more liberal policy. Then, making a progress through the country—for the purpose, as he said, of securing the peace of England and the pure administration of justice—he was crowned again at York.

11. But before he reached York a terrible crime is said to have been committed. Sir Thomas More tells us that James Tyrrel, Richard's master of the horse, was sent from Warwick to London with a royal letter charging Brackenbury, the gover-

[1] *Richard III.*—Son of Richard, Duke of York, and brother of Edward IV. Married Anne, daughter of the Earl of Warwick and widow of Prince Edward, son of Henry VI. Reigned 2 years.

nor of the Tower, to give up the keys of the fortress for twenty-four hours. The dethroned **Edward** and his brother were confined there; and in the dead of night Forrest and Dighton, hired assassins, smothered the sleeping boys with the bed-clothes, showed the corpses to Tyrrel, and then buried them at the foot of a staircase.

12. This story, whether true or false, was believed at the time, and at once turned popular feeling against Richard. A strong party unfavourable to him—prominent in which were John Morton and Richard Fox, two able churchmen—had always existed. Now that the sons of Edward IV. had disappeared, they proposed a union of the Houses of York and Lancaster by a marriage between Henry, **Earl of Richmond,** and Elizabeth of York. Henry was the great-great-grandson of John of Gaunt through his mother, Margaret Beaufort; Elizabeth was the eldest daughter of Edward IV.

13. Dangers grew thick around the usurper. **Buckingham,** changed at once into an enemy, declared in favour of Henry. A rising took place (October 18, 1483); but a storm beat back the Earl of Richmond from the shores of Devon as he was about to land. Buckingham, who had drawn sword at Brecknock, was hindered by a flood in the Severn from joining his confederates, and his army of Welshmen melted away. Fleeing in disguise to the house of a retainer, he was betrayed—some say by his host—and was beheaded in the market-place of Salisbury.

14. The marriage of Richmond and Elizabeth was dreaded by the King. He sought to unite the Princess to his own son, but the latter suddenly died. He had then some idea of marrying his niece himself, and incurred the suspicion of having poisoned his wife, Anne, for this purpose. But Ratcliffe and Catesby, his chief counsellors, dissuaded him from the unnatural union; and there was no resource left him but to await the result of the impending struggle.

15. His gold had long ago been spent; and now that his power seemed tottering, the fidelity of his adherents began to fail. Lord Stanley, who had married Lady Margaret, Richmond's mother, was the object of his greatest suspicion. Soon came the news that Richmond, with 3,000 troops, was at the mouth

of the Seine. Richard took his station at Nottingham, as the centre of the kingdom. Horsemen were in the saddle on all the chief roads, to bring the earliest tidings of his rival's approach.

16. On the 1st of August Richmond landed at Milford Haven. In three weeks the armies met at **Bosworth**, **1485** the King's weakened by repeated desertions. There A.D. Richard, who had cut down the standard-bearer of the Lancastrians, was slain when in the act of aiming a desperate blow at Richmond. The crown, which he had worn on the battle-field, was found in a hawthorn bush close by, and was placed by Sir William Stanley on the victor's head. The body of Richard, carried to Leicester on a horse, was there buried in the church of the Greyfriars.

17. ***HENRY VII.***[1]—The new King was not without **rivals**. There was living at Sheriff-Hutton, in Yorkshire, a boy of fifteen—Edward, Earl of Warwick, son of the Duke of Clarence. John de la Pole, Earl of Lincoln—the son of Elizabeth, eldest sister of Edward IV.—had been appointed heir by Richard III. Warwick was at once, by Henry's order, transferred to the Tower of London. Lincoln, having paid homage to the new King, remained at liberty.

18. The King's public entry into London and his coronation were delayed by a plague called "the sweating sickness." When these ceremonies were at last completed, he called a **1485** Parliament to confirm his title. He claimed the throne A.D. by right of inheritance and of conquest; but to secure his seat, and at the same time to quell for ever the hostility of the rival Roses, he married **Elizabeth of York**, the daughter of Edward IV. His chief confidence was given to Morton and Fox, who had been faithful to him in his exile. He made Morton Archbishop of Canterbury, and Fox Bishop of Winchester.

QUESTIONS.—1. Who had hitherto been the most powerful body in the State? How had they been well-nigh destroyed? What effect had this on the power of the Crown? What power had the Commons? What made that avail little? What enabled the King to give proof of his independence?

2. What excuse did he make for that war? What motives had he for enter-

[1] *Henry VII.*—Great-great-grandson of John of Gaunt. Married Elizabeth of York. First King of the House of Tudor. Reigned 24 years.

ing on it? How did he raise the necessary funds?

3. How was the war prevented? What were the chief conditions of the treaty?

4. What effect had Edward's conduct on his own people? What was his future policy?

5. What event threw a dark stain on Edward's memory? What had estranged the brothers? How is Clarence said to have been put to death?

6. What led Edward again to prepare for a French war? What prevented the war? What children did Edward leave?

7. How old was the young King? Who became Regent? In what was he busily engaged? What order did he give regarding Edward? Who else was sent to the Tower?

8. What was Gloucester's next step? Who were executed?

9. On what ground were Edward the Fourth's children set aside? What reconciled the people to the change? What did the Parliament then do?

10. How did the new King endeavour to win popular favour? Where was he crowned a second time?

11. What crime had in the meantime been committed? What is More's account of it?

12. What was the effect of the story? Who were prominent members of the party opposed to Richard? What did that party now propose?

13. What nobleman joined Richmond? What was his end?

14. How did Richard try to prevent the marriage of Richmond and Elizabeth? What was the only resource finally left him?

15. What shook the fidelity of Richard's adherents? Of whom was he most suspicious? What news was soon received? Where did Richard take his station?

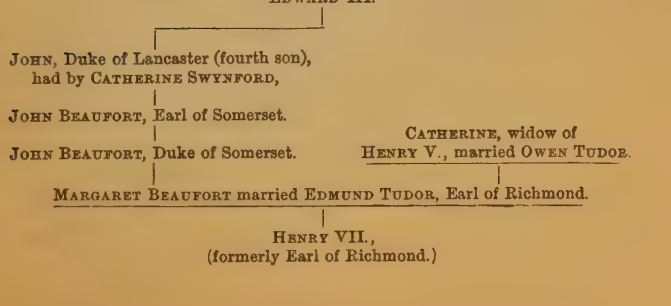
16. When did Richmond land? Where? Where did the armies meet? How was Richard's army weakened? In what act was Richard slain? Where was his crown found? Who placed it on Richmond's head? What was done with Richard's body?

17. What rivals had Henry VII.? What was done with Warwick? Why was Lincoln allowed to remain at liberty?

18. What delayed the coronation? For what purpose was a Parliament called? On what did Henry base his claim? How did he put an end to the rivalry of the Roses? To whom did he give his chief confidence?

GENEALOGICAL TREE

CONNECTING THE ANGEVINS AND THE TUDORS.



CHAPTER II.

AGGRANDIZEMENT OF THE CROWN.

1. Lord Lovel's Rising.
2. Lambert Simnel's Imposture
3. Defeat and Degradation of Simnel.
4. Court of Star Chamber.
5. Henry's Foreign Policy.
6. The Bought Treaty.
7. Perkin Warbeck's Imposture.
8. Poynings's Law in Ireland.
9. Death of Warbeck and Warwick.
10. The Scottish Marriage.
11. The Spanish Marriage.
12. Extortions of Empson and Dudley.
13. A New Aristocracy.
14. Discovery of America.
15. A Gay Court.
16. The Spanish Alliance.
17. War in France and in Scotland.
18. The Rise of Modern History.

1. Notwithstanding all his precautions, Henry's throne was, during the first fifteen years of his reign, a seat of much danger. Plot after plot arose to disturb his tranquillity. He was at Lincoln, on a progress through the north, when news reached him of a rising in Yorkshire under **Lord Lovel.** It was soon suppressed; but Lord Lovel escaped to the Court of Margaret, Duchess-Dowager of Burgundy, a sister of Edward IV., who appears oftener than once during this reign as the patron of pretenders to the English throne. From Yorkshire the King passed to Bristol, where he did much good, by encouraging the citizens to build ships, and to renew their trade which had greatly fallen off during the Civil War.

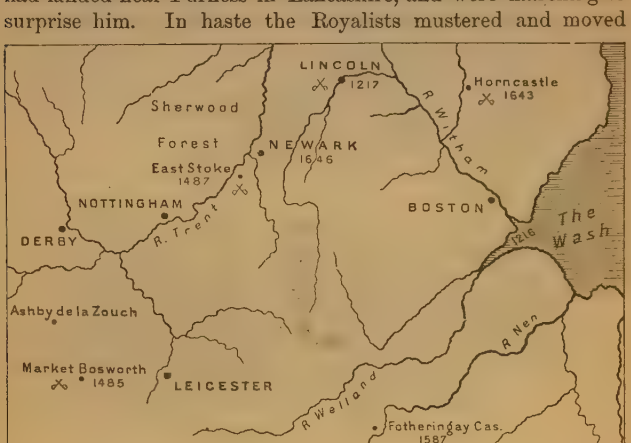
2. This reign was the age of imposture. Although it was well known that the young Earl of Warwick was a prisoner in the Tower, there appeared in Dublin an Oxford priest, **1486** named Simon, with a boy whom he called Edward, Earl A.D. of Warwick. He was really a tradesman's son, by name **Lambert Simnel.** The Earl of Kildare, a keen Yorkist, was Lord-Deputy; by him this boy was received with all honours, as a Prince of Yorkist blood; and the pretender was proclaimed King with the title of Edward VI. Henry, in alarm, called the peers and prelates around him; and by their advice the real Warwick was led, in view of the citizens, from the Tower to St. Paul's, and thence to the Palace of Shene.[1] At the same time, the Queen-Dowager, Elizabeth, was arrested and imprisoned in the Convent of Bermondsey.[2]

3. A new source of alarm was the desertion of the Earl of

[1] *Shene.*—Now Richmond, 12 miles south-west of London.

[2] *Bermondsey.*—One and a half miles south-east of London.

Lincoln. Aided by his aunt, the Duchess of Burgundy, he soon joined Simnel at Dublin with 2,000 troops. The impostor was crowned, and a Parliament was called in his name. While Henry was at Kenilworth,[1] he heard that Lincoln and Simnel had landed near Furness in Lancashire, and were marching to surprise him. In haste the Royalists mustered and moved



towards Newark; but so bad were the roads that the King's army lost its way between Nottingham and Newark. The rebels came upon them at **Stoke**,[2] but the attack was speedily repulsed. Lincoln died on the field. Lovel, who had joined the enterprise, was never heard of from that day. Simon and Simnel surrendered. The former died in prison; the latter was employed in the royal kitchen as a scullion, but was afterwards raised to the post of falconer.

1487 A.D.

[1] *Kenilworth.*—Five miles north of Warwick. The famous castle, now an ivied ruin, was begun in Henry the First's time. There the Earl of Leicester entertained Queen Elizabeth with great magnificence in 1575, at a cost to the Earl of £1,000 a day. It is celebrated in Scott's romance of *Kenilworth*.

[2] *Stoke*, or East Stoke, is a village on a hill overlooking the Trent; 4 miles south-west of Newark, in Nottinghamshire.

4. The Queen, of whose better title Henry seemed to be jealous, was now at length crowned with great pomp. This may be looked on as the work of the people; for they felt and spoke so strongly on the subject that the King dared not refuse the honours of royalty to his wife. About the same time a new court of the **Star Chamber**[1] received the authority of

COURT OF THE STAR CHAMBER.

Parliament. It consisted of the Chancellor, the Treasurer, the Keeper of the Privy Seal, one bishop, one temporal peer, and the chief judges. The principal work it had now to do was the abolition of "*maintenance*,"—a system by which the nobles retained around them a band of lawless men, wearing their livery and bound by oath to fight in their quarrels.

5. The ruling principle of Henry's **foreign policy** was to maintain peace. Only once was he led into a foreign war. Duke Francis of Brittany had died, leaving his coronet to his daughter Anne, a girl of twelve. The French King claimed

[1] *Star Chamber.*—So called from the *Starra*, or Jewish bonds, of which the room where the Court met was made the depository by William the Conqueror. There was an older Star Chamber, consisting of the whole Lords of the Council. It was revived towards the close of Henry the Eighth's reign; and it was that Court that proved so oppressive under Charles I. It was abolished by the Long Parliament in 1641.

the dukedom. Henry, who had spent a great part of his exile in Brittany, was forced to send an army to aid the defenceless princess; but this help was burdened with the condition that she should give up two forts as security for the money spent in her cause, and that she should not marry without his consent. The raising of taxes to equip this army excited a revolt in the north of England. But the Earl of Surrey soon dispersed the insurgents; and their leader suffered death at York.

6. Anne of Brittany was betrothed to Maximilian, King of the Romans, with the consent of Henry. Charles of France, however, forced the princess into a marriage with himself, and the King of England at last resolved on war. This was pleasing to the English people. Henry had long been talking of war, and had often received supplies and extorted benevolences for the purpose; but it had not yet been fulfilled. Still he invented reasons for delay, and it was not until October 1492 that he landed in France and laid siege to Boulogne. The invasion ended as did that of Edward IV. The French King knew Henry's love of money; and ere the siege had lasted many days, he secured the Treaty of **Estaples,**[1] by promising a large sum. Henry received from Charles £149,000; and retained, besides, all the money he had extorted from his own subjects for the war. This caused much discontent among the people, while the nobles murmured that they had been balked of their conquest of France, in anticipation of which many of them had mortgaged their estates.

1492 A.D.

7. A new impostor now appeared in Ireland. This was **Perkin Warbeck,** a native of Tournay,[2] who pretended to be Richard, Duke of York, the younger of the two princes supposed to have been murdered in the Tower in 1483. He was supported by the Dowager-Duchess of Burgundy, and by the Yorkist faction in England. Sir Robert Clifford, Warbeck's agent in Burgundy, having turned traitor, the chiefs of the plot in England were seized. Among those who were executed was Sir William Stanley, who had saved the King's life at

[1] *Estaples.*—Now Etaples, on the estuary of the Canche; 15 miles south of Boulogne.

[2] *Tournay.*—In Belgium, near the French frontier; 15 miles from Lille, and 35 from Brussels.

Bosworth, and whose brother, Lord Stanley, had crowned Henry on the field. These measures broke the spirit of Warbeck's party for a time.

8. It became necessary to make the government of Ireland more secure. This was effected by Sir Edward Poynings, the Lord-Deputy, who passed a measure called **Poynings's Law**, which made the English supremacy in Ireland a reality. It provided that the Irish Parliament should not meet without the sanction of the English Government; and that no Bill could be introduced into it until it had first received the assent of the King and his Council. The measure gave the English Sovereigns a firmer hold on the island. Its effect was seen when Warbeck returned to Cork in 1496. He failed entirely to effect a rising, and passed to Scotland in search of aid.

1494 A.D.

9. James IV. of Scotland not only acknowledged the pretender, and allowed him to marry a daughter of the Earl of Huntly, but he also raised an army and pillaged the northern counties of England in mid-winter. This invasion gave Henry an excuse for levying new taxes. The Cornish men revolted, and marched to within sight of London; but they were soon dispersed, and their leaders were executed. Nevertheless, the spirit of discontent still lingered in Cornwall, and it encouraged Warbeck to try his fortune there. At Bodmin he unfurled his standard as Richard IV. He besieged Exeter with 6,000 men; but the vigorous resistance offered by the citizens forced him to retreat. At Taunton he secretly left his army and fled to the Sanctuary of Beaulieu in Hampshire. Having been induced to throw himself on the King's mercy, he was taken to London. There he confessed his imposture and was committed to the Tower, where lay the unfortunate Earl of Warwick. The prisoners became friends. They spent many months in maturing a plan for escape; but they were detected, and both were executed.[1]

1499 A.D.

10. The King was now securely seated on the throne. Henceforward he devoted his attention to the amassing of

[1] Warbeck's wife fell into the King's hands, and was appointed to an honourable post as attendant on the Queen. She was called in the English Court "The White Rose,"—a name once borne by her husband.

money and the advancement of his foreign influence by marriages. The old enmity between England and Scotland, which was fiercest in the Border counties, was set at rest by a marriage (1503 A.D.) between the Scottish King, **James IV.**, and **Margaret**, Henry's eldest daughter. This marriage must be carefully remembered, for it led to the union of the English and Scottish crowns in 1603. **1503** A.D.

11. France and Spain were then the leading powers on the Continent. To check the influence of France, Henry formed a Spanish alliance. He had in 1501 married his eldest son, Arthur, to Catherine of Aragon, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella. The bridegroom, a gentle and learned prince, lived only six months after the union; and his brother Henry, afterwards King, was by a Papal bull contracted to the young widow,—so unwilling was Henry either to lose her dowry or to have his favourite foreign policy frustrated. The Queen, Elizabeth of York, died in 1503, after which the King set himself to secure a rich second wife; but all his schemes were unavailing.

12. During the whole reign infamous extortion went on. Richard Empson and Edmund Dudley were the chief agents of Henry's rapacity. They were both lawyers; and so great was the King's influence that, while his oppressions were at their height, Dudley was chosen Speaker of the Commons. A single occurrence will show the nature of these extortions. Henry visited a favourite general, the Earl of Oxford. When leaving the mansion, the King passed through two lines of fine-looking men, splendidly equipped. "My lord," said he to the Earl, "these are of course your servants?" The Earl smiled and said, "No, your Majesty, I am too poor for that; these are my retainers, assembled to do you honour." The King started and said, "I thank you, my lord, for your good cheer, but I cannot have my laws broken in my sight." He referred to a law abolishing "maintenance;" and Oxford was fined £10,000 for his anxiety to do honour to royalty!

13. Henry died in the spring of 1509. His health gave way under repeated attacks of gout, and consumption at length set in. In his dying hours he ordered that those whom he had injured should be recompensed. Of the laws passed by Henry,

the most important was one allowing the nobles to sell their estates, regardless of the "entail," which fixed the estate to some particular line of heirs. Henry's object in passing this law was to lessen the power of the nobles, whom he feared. But it also exalted the commons; for those who had amassed money by merchandise bought the estates, which the nobles, loaded with debt, were only too glad to sell. A new aristocracy, composed of the leading commoners, thus sprang up.

14. By Henry's order the *Great Harry*, a war-ship of two decks, was built. It cost £14,000, and was of one thousand tons burden. But what gives to his reign its deepest interest is that during it the New World was discovered. On the 12th of October 1492 **Columbus** discovered the Bahama Islands. At first, baffled in Spain, he had sent his brother Bartholomew to England, to seek ships from Henry. Bartholomew, who brought with him maps and charts, then first seen in our island, was on his way back to invite Christopher to the English Court, when he was seized by pirates. Meanwhile Christopher had obtained Spanish ships and had begun his perilous voyage. The credit, however, of discovering the mainland of America is due to English enterprise. **Sebastian Cabot**, a Venetian, sent by Henry from Bristol, touched at Labrador in 1497, and sailed southward to Florida.

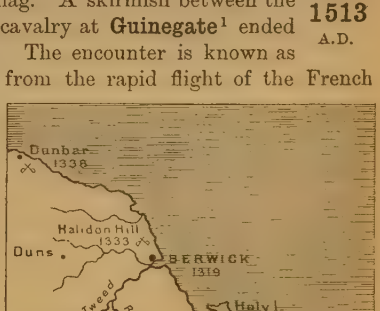
15. *HENRY VIII.*[1]—The new King was a gallant and generous youth of eighteen; and the nation, ground by the avarice of his father, gladly welcomed him to the throne. One of his earliest acts was the execution of Dudley and Empson; and the people, thus appeased, settled into a tranquillity unknown during five reigns. As often happens, the miser father had a spendthrift son. Encouraged by the Earl of Surrey, now chief minister, the young King plunged into a whirl of costly pleasures. Tournaments, dances, pageants, revels followed in quick succession; and if Henry stole a quiet hour, it was given to music and literature. In the first year of his reign he married Catherine of Aragon, the widow of his brother Arthur.

[1] *Henry VIII.*—Son of Henry VII. Married (1) Catherine of Aragon, who was divorced; (2) Anne Boleyn, who was beheaded; (3) Jane Seymour, who died; (4) Anne of Cleves, who was divorced; (5) Catherine Howard, who was beheaded; (6) Catherine Parr, who survived Henry. Reigned 38 years.

16. The Kings of France had long been desirous of subduing **Italy**, and Louis XII. now seemed likely to achieve the conquest. The Pope, Julius II., formed a league with Ferdinand of Spain and the Venetians to oppose the French armies. Henry, who had inherited his father's policy of attacking France through Spain, joined the league. His first Parliament readily granted supplies. An English army was sent into Spain to invade Guienne. But as Ferdinand tried to employ the troops in his private schemes against Navarre, their leader in disgust brought them back to England without attempting the invasion of France. Indirectly, however, this first campaign fell heavily on Louis. It forced him to withdraw his troops from Italy, and his splendid conquests in the plain of Lombardy all but a few garrisons, yielded to the Swiss pikemen of the Pope.

17. The Parliament of 1513 having granted a poll-tax and other supplies, Henry sailed with his troops to Calais. He was there joined by the Emperor Maximilian, who came to serve under the English flag. A skirmish between the English and the French cavalry at **Guinegate**[1] ended in a victory for England. The encounter is known as "The Battle of Spurs," from the rapid flight of the French horse. Terouenne and Tournay were then taken, and Henry, whose resources were getting low, returned to England. Meanwhile James IV., prompted by the alliance then existing between France and Scotland, had invaded England; but on **Flodden Field**, near the Till, his army was routed, and himself and many of his nobles were slain, by the English under Lord Surrey.

Aug. 18, 1513 A.D.



[1] *Guinegate.*—Near Terouenne in Picardy, north of France. (See *Map*, p. 166.)

18. The accession of the House of Tudor is coëval with the epoch of Modern History. It was the time of the revival of learning, and of the reformation in religion. Knowledge was diffused by the printing press. Men began to read and to think for themselves. Education became more general. Most of the great middle-class schools of England date from the time of Henry VIII. and Edward VI. As intelligence was spread among the great middle-class, they took greater interest in public affairs, and made their weight felt in the State.

QUESTIONS.—1. How were the earlier years of Henry's reign disturbed? Who headed a rising in Yorkshire? How did it end? Where did Lovel go? What good did the King do at Bristol?

2. What impostor appeared in 1486? Whom did he pretend to be? Where did he appear? By whom was he acknowledged? What means did Henry take to expose the imposture?

3. Who joined Simnel with troops? By whose aid were they furnished? Where did Lincoln and Simnel land? What happened to the King's army between Nottingham and Newark? Where was a battle fought? What was the result? What became of Simnel?

4. What induced Henry to crown the Queen? What court was established about the same time? Of whom did it consist? What was its principal work?

5. What was the principle of Henry's foreign policy? What led him to take part in a French quarrel? How was that connected with a revolt in the north? Who suppressed it?

6. What at last made Henry resolve on war? Why was the war popular? When did the English army land in France? How did the invasion end? Whom did the King's conduct displease?

7. Who was the new impostor? Whom did he pretend to be? Who supported him? What led to the arrest of the chief conspirators in England? Who was among those executed?

8. What measure made the government of Ireland more secure? What were its chief provisions? When was the effect of the measure seen? Where did Warbeck then go for aid?

9. How did the King of Scotland treat Warbeck? What induced Warbeck to try his fortune in Cornwall? What was the issue? When and why was Warbeck executed?

10. To what did Henry devote his attention when he was settled on the throne? To whom was his daughter Margaret married? Why is this marriage important?

11. What was Henry's object in forming a Spanish alliance? How was it effected? What endangered the scheme? How was the alliance continued? When did the Queen die?

12. Who were the chief agents of Henry's extortions? Give an instance showing the nature of these proceedings.

13. When did Henry die? What was the most important of the laws passed in his reign? What was its object? What were its effects?

14. What ship was built by Henry's order? What gives his reign its chief interest? Who made the discovery? When? How had Henry shown his willingness to help Columbus? What credit is due to English enterprise? When?

15. How was the accession of Henry VIII. received? Why? What was one of his earliest acts? What kind of life did he lead? When did he marry? Whom?

16. What foreign league did Henry join? Why? What led to the with-

drawal of the English troops? What were the indirect consequences of the campaign?

17. Who joined Henry at Calais in 1513? When was the "Battle of Spurs" fought? Why was it so called? What places were then taken? Why did Henry return to England? What victory had been gained over the Scots in the same year?

18. With what is the accession of the House of Tudor coëval? What changes then took place? What class of the people acquired influence?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. **1477.—Holland** was annexed to Austria by the marriage of Mary of Burgundy, daughter of Charles the Bold, with the Archduke Maximilian. Holland had been annexed to Burgundy in 1436.

2. **1479.**—Nearly the whole Christian dominions of Spain were united in one monarchy by **Ferdinand II.** of Aragon, who had married **Isabella** of Castile in 1469. (See 1512.)

3. **1491.**—Anne, reigning Duchess of Brittany, married Charles VIII. of France. On the death of Charles she married Louis XII., in 1499. Her eldest daughter, Claude, married Francis of Angouleme in 1514, who became King of France in 1515. Brittany, hitherto an independent fief, was formally united to the French crown in 1532.

4. **1492.**—The **Jews** were expelled from France, Spain, and Portugal.

5. **1492.**—The rule of **Lorenzo de Medici** ("The Magnificent," and "Father of Letters") came to an end in Florence. His son Giovanni became Pope Leo X., who founded St. Peter's at Rome, and was the opponent of Luther. The rule of the Medici family in Florence began in 1434.

6. **1492.—Granada** was taken by Ferdinand after a siege of two years, and the power of the Moors in Spain was completely overthrown. (See 1238, 1610.)

7. **1492.—Columbus** discovered the Bahama Islands, on the coast of America, and annexed them to Spain. In a subsequent voyage (1497) he landed on the mainland of South America.

8. **1493.**—Maximilian I. became Emperor of Germany. He organized a standing army as well as a strong civil government.

9. **1494.**—Charles VIII. of France, claiming the kingdom of Naples, invaded Italy, overran Tuscany, and penetrated to Rome and Naples. Venice, Milan, the Emperor, and the Pope formed a league against him, drove him out of Italy, and stripped him of his conquests.

10. **1497.—Vasco de Gâma** discovered the sea-route to India by doubling the Cape of Good Hope, or Cape of Storms, as it had previously been called. He established the first European settlement in India at Cochin, in 1502.

11. **1498.—Jerome de Savonarola**, a political and religious enthusiast and reformer, was executed at Florence.

12. 1499.—**Amerigo Vespucci**, a Florentine navigator, landed on the mainland of South America, and gave his name to the continent,—America.

13. 1499.—Louis XII. of France forced Ferdinand of Naples to surrender, and to divide his possessions with him. Sicily had been seized by the Spaniards in 1282, and Naples in 1435. In 1501 the French were driven out of Naples, and the kingdom of the Two Sicilies was annexed to the crown of Aragon by Ferdinand II.

14. 1501.—The Turkish dynasty was established in Persia by Shah Ismael I., who restored the country to prosperity and power. Fierce wars ensued between the Persians and the Turks. (See 1638.)

15. 1506.—Lisbon was made the capital of Portugal by King Emanuel.

16. 1508.—The League of **Cambray** was formed by Pope Julius II., the French, the Spaniards, and the Emperor, against Venice. The Pope, in league with the Spaniards and the Venetians, afterwards turned against the French, and drove them out of Italy.

17. 1512.—Ferdinand II. of Aragon, Leon, and Castile, conquered Navarre, south of the Pyrenees, and took the title of **King of Spain** as Ferdinand V. He ruled over the whole Peninsula south of the Pyrenees, except Portugal.

QUESTIONS.—1. What event annexed Holland to Austria?— 2. When did Spain become a single monarchy? How?—3. How was Brittany united to the French crown?—4. From what countries were the Jews expelled in 1492?—5. Whose rule came to an end in Florence in the same year? For what is his son Giovanni famous?—6. What event brought to an end the power of the Moors in Spain?—7. What did Columbus discover in 1492? When did he land on the mainland of America?—8. Who became Emperor of Germany in 1493?—9. What led Charles VIII. to invade Italy? How far did he penetrate? Who combined against him?—10. Who was the first to double the Cape of Good Hope? When? What had it previously been called? What was the first European settlement in India? Its date?—11. Who was Savonarola? When was he executed?—12. After whom was America named? Why?—13. What success had Louis XII. in Italy in 1499? What power obtained the Two Sicilies two years later?—14. When was the Turkish dynasty established in Persia? By whom?—15. Who made Lisbon the capital of Portugal? When?—16. What was the League of Cambray? How was it broken up?—17. Who was the first King of Spain? When did he take the title? What was the extent of his kingdom?

CHAPTER III.

PERSONAL GOVERNMENT.

1. Rise of Wolsey.
2. Wolsey Sole Minister.
3. Francis I. and Charles V.
4. Position of Henry.
5. The Field of the Cloth of Gold.
6. The Reformation in Germany.
7. Luther Breaks with the Church of Rome.
8. Henry Defender of the Faith.
9. Henry Joins the Emperor.
10. Wolsey and the Commons
11. Henry Joins Francis.

1. **Thomas Wolsey** was a prominent figure during the first twenty-one years of Henry's reign. Born at Ipswich in 1471, he was only fifteen when he graduated at Oxford. The Boy Bachelor, as he was called, soon received from the Marquis of Dorset, whose sons had been his pupils, the rectory of Lymington in Somersetshire. His next important step was the chaplaincy of Calais, where he was noticed by Fox, Bishop of Winchester, by whom he was recommended to Henry VII. The deanery of Lincoln and the post of King's almoner rewarded him for his zeal in the royal service; and under the gay young Henry VIII., who was pleased to find that a priest, so able to conduct the business of the State, scrupled not to drink and dance and sing in the court-revels, he rose to be Archbishop of York and Chancellor of England.

2. When in 1515 the Pope made him a Cardinal, his splendour rivalled that of the King. His train numbered five hundred; his silken robes sparkled with gold; he permitted his cardinal's hat to be laid nowhere in the royal chapel but on the high altar. In 1518 he was created **Papal Legate,** and then he caused the first nobles of England to serve him on feast-days with towel and water. By this glitter and pride he pleased the people, from whose ranks he had risen. His fostering care of learning gained for him the applause of the wise. From 1513 till 1529 he was Henry's sole adviser and minister for home and foreign, for civil as well as for ecclesiastical affairs. The King ceased to consult his Council, and Parliament was called only twice in all these years. The King and Wolsey, or Wolsey in name of the King, did everything. Wolsey was responsible to the King, and the King was responsible to nobody.

3. **Francis I.** now sat on the French throne. He had in-

herited the desire of conquering Italy, and he therefore sought to live at peace with England. To maintain peace by means of a French alliance was also the wish of Wolsey, whose favour Francis courted by means of presents and flattery. In 1519 Maximilian died, and **Charles V.** was chosen Emperor. Charles, Francis, and Henry were then the leading Sovereigns of Europe; and the policy of each conflicted with that of the others.

4. Charles ruled Spain, Austria, Naples, and the Netherlands. His, too, was the New World, with its mines of gold and silver. Francis, holding a compact and prosperous kingdom almost in the centre of the Emperor's scattered dominions, was a formidable rival. Henry, close at hand, yet securely guarded by the sea, could in a week pour his troops on the shores of either realm. The English King was therefore courted by both Charles and Francis. He was invited by Francis to a meeting near Calais; but before that could take place he was visited in England by Charles.

5. Henry then crossed to Calais, and met Francis between Guines and Ardres.[1] The interview has been called, from the splendour of the monarchs and their retinues, "The Field of the **Cloth of Gold.**" Three weeks were spent in empty visits of state, tournaments, and feasts; but nothing of importance was done. At Gravelines, a town on the shore a little north from Calais, Henry and Charles met immediately afterwards; and any feeling in favour of Francis which may have grown up in Henry's mind was completely swept away.

May 30, 1520 A.D.

6. The **Reformation**—whence the greatest changes of modern times have sprung—was now in progress. The Church of St. Peter had for many years been rising on the banks of the Tiber. To raise funds for the building, Leo X. had sent out monks to sell indulgences—a mode of procuring money invented by Urban II. in the days of the Crusades. Martin Luther, an Augustine monk of Saxony, opposed the whole scheme of indulgences. In his Ninety-five Propositions fixed on the door of the church at Wittenberg, he defended the doctrine of justification by faith in Christ alone.

1517 A.D.

[1] *Guines and Ardres.*—See *Map*, p. 166.

7. In the castle-hall of Leipsic, before the great and the wise of Northern Germany, he maintained the authority of the Bible as the only rule of religious faith, and claimed for every man the right to read and interpret the Sacred Book for himself. At the gate of Wittenberg Castle, he severed the last tie which bound him to the Church of Rome, by casting into the flames the Papal bull proclaiming his excommunication.

June, **1519** A.D.

Dec. 10, **1520** A.D.

8. The news of these things was heard joyfully in England by many who remembered with reverence the doctrines of John Wyclif. But Henry was as yet a strict Roman Catholic. He wrote a book in Latin defending the seven sacraments of the Church of Rome, and sent a copy of it to the Pope. Leo, glad to receive aid so illustrious, conferred on him the title, "Defender of the Faith."

1521 A.D.

9. War at length broke out between Charles V. and Francis I., and Henry sided with the Emperor. Twice English troops invaded France, but without success, although on the second occasion the army reached a town eleven leagues from Paris. Want of money was one cause of these failures. The immense hoards of the late King had long since been exhausted; and, to fill his empty treasury, Henry was forced in 1523 to call a Parliament. There had been no meeting of the Houses for seven years.

10. When the Commons assembled, Wolsey entered the hall to demand £800,000 for the King; but the House was not to be thus overawed. It was with difficulty prevailed on to grant only half that sum; and when the Cardinal began to press his claim with arguments, he was told that members of the Commons alone were allowed to debate there. Other seven years passed before the King called another Parliament. During these years Wolsey raised money by means of Benevolences, and Henry ruled as a despot over a submissive but by no means a contented people.

11. But the **foreign policy** of Henry soon changed. At the Battle of Pavia (February 24, 1525) Francis lost, as he himself said, "all but honour," and was now the prisoner of Charles. Henry had gained nothing by the war, either in territory or in glory, and he began to suspect that Charles had used him as his

tool. Wolsey took advantage of this mood to press his peace policy on the King. Francis was not released for a year, when by the Treaty of Madrid he agreed to give Burgundy to the Emperor as his ransom—a promise, however, never fulfilled. Two years later, when Rome was sacked by the Emperor's troops, and the Pope was cast into prison, Henry and Francis united in a league to release the Pontiff, and to carry war into the Emperor's dominions.

QUESTIONS.—1. Where was Wolsey born? How old was he when he graduated? What was his first living? Who recommended him to Henry VII.? What posts did he receive from him? What made him a favourite of Henry VIII.? To what offices did he rise under him?

2. To what dignity was he raised in 1515? For what did he then become conspicuous? When was he made Papal Legate? During what time was he Henry's sole minister? How often was Parliament called during these years?

3. Who was now King of France? Why did he wish to live at peace with England? What was Wolsey's wish? Who was chosen Emperor in 1519?

4. What were Charles's possessions? What made Francis a formidable rival to him? Why was Henry courted by both? Where was he to meet Francis? What took place before that meeting could be effected?

5. What name has been given to the interview of Francis and Henry? Why? Where did Henry immediately go?

6. What great event was then in progress in Europe? What was its immediate origin? What doctrine did Luther defend at Wittenberg?

7. What did he maintain at Leipsic? How did he sever the last tie between him and the Church of Rome?

8. Who in England rejoiced at the news of these things? What part did Henry take in the controversy? How was he rewarded?

9. Between whom did war at length break out? Which side did Henry take? What was the cause of his failures in France? What was he therefore forced to do?

10. What took place when the Commons assembled? To what grant did they agree? What was Wolsey told when he began to argue the King's cause? How long was it till another Parliament was called? How was money raised during that time?

11. What led Henry to change his policy? When was Francis released? What was the object of the league between Henry and Francis?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. **1517.—Martin Luther** nailed his Ninety-five Theses against indulgences to the door of the church of Wittenberg, and began the Reformation struggle in Germany.

2. **1517.**—The Sultan **Selim I.** took Jerusalem, and afterwards conquered Egypt from the Mamelukes. The **Mamelukes** (*lit.* slaves), like the Janissaries (see 1362), were originally a body of troops consisting of Tartar slaves bought by the Sultan of Egypt. The Mamelukes acquired supreme power, founding one dynasty in 1254, and another in 1382. After 1517, Egypt was governed by twenty-four Mameluke Beys or

governors of provinces, till the close of the eighteenth century. (See 1798 and 1811.)

3. 1519.—The Emperor Maximilian died, and was succeeded by **Charles V.** (Charles I. of Spain). This election greatly disappointed Francis I. of France, who was also a candidate, and war ensued between these princes.

4. 1519.—**Mexico** was conquered by the Spaniards under Cortes, who treated the natives cruelly at first, but afterwards tried to civilize them. It was constituted a kingdom, with Cortes as governor. Montezuma, the last native Emperor, was imprisoned, and died in 1520 of a wound which he received accidentally from one of his own people.

5. 1522.—The Sultan Selim II. took Rhodes from the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem; to whom the Emperor Charles gave **Malta.** The Knights of St. John defended Malta successfully against the Turks in 1565.

6. 1523.—The Reformation in Switzerland was begun by Zwingle. Zwingle was killed in a battle between the Roman Catholic and the Protestant cantons in 1531.

7. 1524.—The **Peasants' War,** caused by a rising of the Anabaptists of Münster, desolated the Rhenish provinces.

8. 1525.—Francis I. of France was defeated and taken prisoner at **Pavia** in Italy. This war began in 1521, when the Pope joined the Emperor against France. After a year's captivity Francis was released on condition of ceding Burgundy to Charles V. The Burgundians refused to fulfil this condition, and the war was renewed to release the sons of Francis, who had been given up as hostages. The Pope having deserted the Emperor, Rome was mercilessly sacked by the imperial troops in 1527. The war was concluded by the Peace of Cambray, in 1529.

9. 1525.—The Teutonic Order in Prussia, having been humbled by Poland, was abolished; and Albert of Brandenburg, the grand master, became **Duke of Prussia,** holding his duchy as a fief of the Polish crown. The Duchy of Prussia and the Electorate of Brandenburg were united in 1618. (See 1640.)

10. 1525.—Baber founded the **Mogul Empire** at Delhi. (See 1399.)

11. 1525.—Frederic, Duke of Schleswig-Holstein, became King of Denmark and Norway. His son, Charles III., annexed Schleswig-Holstein to the Danish crown in 1533.

QUESTIONS.—1. What began the Reformation struggle in Germany?—2. Who took Jerusalem in 1517? What country did he afterwards conquer? From whom? Who were the Mamelukes?—3. Who succeeded Maximilian as Emperor?—4. When did the Spaniards conquer Mexico? What government was set up? Who was the last native Emperor?—5. Why did the Knights of St. John leave Rhodes? Where did they go? Who gave them Malta?—6. Who began the Reformation in Switzerland? How did he die?—7. What was the cause of the Peasants' War? What provinces did it des-

olate?—8. Where was Francis I. taken prisoner? What led to the renewal of the war? What concluded it?—9. Explain the origin of the dukedom of Prussia. To what crown was it at first subject?—10. Who founded the Mogul Empire at Delhi?—11. What led to the annexation of Schleswig-Holstein to the Danish crown? When? When had Charles's father become King?

CHAPTER IV.

THE FALL OF WOLSEY.

1. Doubts regarding the King's Marriage.
2. Anne Boleyn.
3. Wolsey's Scheme for a French Marriage.
4. The Pope's Policy of Delay.
5. The Legatine Court.
6. The Queen's Withdrawal.
7. Adjournment of the Cause.
8. Degradation of Wolsey.
9. Pardon from the King.
10. The Charge of High Treason.
11. Death of Wolsey.
12. His Successor.

1. Now arose on the horizon a speck which soon darkened all the sky of Wolsey's life. The Bishop of Tarbês, engaged in negotiating a proposed marriage between the Princess
1527 Mary, Henry's daughter, and a son of the French King,
A.D. suggested some doubts as to the **legality of the marriage** from which the girl had sprung. Eighteen years had come and gone since Henry and Catherine had first lived in wedlock. No whisper of the sort seems ever to have stirred the air before. The King certainly had seen three dead sons, and had long despaired of a living one. And a cold dislike had taken the place of the kindly feeling which had once united the English husband to his Spanish wife. At this conjuncture the evil hint, which yielded so many woes, was dropped doubtless by Wolsey himself, who hoped thereby to complete the breach with Spain.

2. It so happened that there was among the attendants of the Queen a pretty maid of honour, who had spent some years in France, and now, at the age of twenty, was not unknown in the coquetries that went on beneath the palace roof. This was **Anne Boleyn**, daughter of Sir Thomas Boleyn and Elizabeth Howard, a lady of the ducal house of Norfolk. The King fell in love with her; and this passion hardened all his floating discontents and dislikes into a firm resolve to obtain a divorce from his cold, delicate, elderly Spanish wife.

3. Wolsey heard of this resolve—a seed of his own sowing—

shortly before he went on that splendid embassy to France which resulted in the league of 1527. He had promised **the French King** that *his* sister-in-law Renée should fill the place of the divorced Queen. But he was reckoning without his host. When Henry heard, on the Cardinal's return, of the new matrimonial alliance arranged for him, he declared that no French princess was needed, since Anne Boleyn, and no other, should be his second wife. Wolsey had observed the King's flirtation with Anne, but had never dreamed of his marrying her. The news filled him with dismay. It meant ruin to all the schemes of his life. For four hours he knelt at Henry's feet, seeking to change his purpose. But no entreaties and no arguments could move the stubborn King.

4. Everything then turned against the unhappy Cardinal, who strove in vain to stem the tide. **Pope Clement**, placed "between the hammer and the forge," dreaded the rage of the Emperor, whose aunt Queen Catherine was, and dreaded equally the loss of Henry's favour. Delay seemed his only safety. But the blame of this delay fell heavily on Wolsey, although he was in truth most eager to have the matter settled. Henry stormed at him. Anne grew to hate him. Catherine knew that in his brain the fatal divorce-idea had first been hatched. Thus, pierced with his own dart, Wolsey lingered through many torturing days. To add to his misery, news soon came from Italy of a great French army wasted away before Naples by hunger and disease; and the consequent ruin of all the ambitious hopes which he had built on the French alliance.

5. After long delay, **Cardinal Campeggio**, appointed by the Pope to try the divorce case in conjunction with Wolsey, arrived in England. The popular mind was in a ferment against Wolsey; for a danger which menaced the comfort, nay, the safety of a thousand English homes—the danger of an interruption of the Flemish trade, loomed in the immediate future. Campeggio came to hear the case, but not to decide it. Within the great hall of the Black Friars' Monastery the two Cardinals sat enthroned, supported on the right hand by the King, on the left by the Queen whom he wanted to fling off. June 21, 1529 A.D.

6. Henry answered to the calling of his name. But **Catherine**, who had already appealed from the judgment of

the Pope, instead of answering when her name was pronounced, knelt at the feet of her husband, and drew a most touching picture of her meek submission to his will, and her pure fidelity to her marriage-vows. Then, rising, she bowed before the King and walked out of the hall, resolved never, in person or by proxy, to face the court again.

7. Nor was the resolve unkept. The prejudged trial went on without her; and all was ready for the Legate's decision, when, in spite of Wolsey's urging and Henry's peremptory demand, the old Italian refused to pronounce judgment, and **adjourned the cause** until the beginning of October. The secret of his intrepid speech lay in the fact that, a month earlier, Clement had concluded a treaty with the Emperor, which enabled him to act independently of Henry's rage.

8. This sealed **Wolsey's doom.** A Parliament was summoned. At Grafton in Northamptonshire, where Henry and Anne Boleyn were staying for a time, the Cardinal saw for the last time the King, whose splendour he had almost outshone. On his return to London, the Dukes of Norfolk and Suffolk, armed with a royal order, took the Great Seal from his keeping, turned him out of York Place, and gave him the strongest possible hint that his country-seat of Esher, near Hampton Court, was the fittest covert for his fallen greatness. From Esher the letters of the old man, who signed himself most truly *Miserrimus*,[1] touched the hearts of some friends like Stephen Gardiner and Thomas Cromwell, whose fortunes he had built up in his days of pride and power.

9. Henry did not all at once sever the ties that bound him to his old companion and minister of so many years. When the King's Bench, founding on the Statute of Provisors, convicted Wolsey on the ground that he had got Bulls from Rome while assuming authority as a Papal Legate in England, the King granted him **a pardon.** He also sent some physicians of the Court to cure him of a low fever that was wasting him away. Another effort of his numerous enemies started an impeachment of forty-four articles against him in the newly assembled Parliament. One charge related to the use of *Ego et rex meus*[2] in his

[1] *Miser'rimus.*—Most wretched.

[2] *Ego et rex meus.*—I and my king.

despatches, as if assuming an equality with the King. The eloquence of Thomas Cromwell, formerly secretary to the fallen Cardinal, and one who stood by him to the last, obtained the rejection of this Bill. It passed the Lords, but it perished in the Commons.

10. His enemies still followed closely on his track. Dreading his nearness to the Court, they had him ordered off to York, where a hearty welcome flung a parting gleam on his broken life. He had not yet been installed in the cathedral of the northern capital. The ceremony had been neglected in the whirl and glare of courtly life. Now a day was fixed, and preparations were made for the needful pageantry and revels. The final shock came before the appointed day. While he was sitting at dinner in the house of Cawood, near York, the Earl of Northumberland came to arrest him for **high treason.** Northumberland, who had been a page in the Cardinal's household, felt that he had stabbed the fallen statesman to the heart, when he touched him and spoke the terrible words of the arrest. The Yorkshire peasants were moved to tears, as the sick old man, scarcely able to sit his mule, went slowly amid his guards toward the south.

11. An attack of dysentery delayed him at Sheffield Park for eighteen days. Entering **Leicester Abbey** one evening late, the light of torches lending a false flush to his worn face, he said to the Abbot, "Father, I am come to lay my bones among you." It was true. A relapse of his disease, acting on a frame broken with anxiety and grief, wore his life away. He died at eight on Monday evening, the 28th of November 1530, being then in his sixtieth year. With his failing breath he charged the King to crush in time "the new pernicious sect of Lutherans." His last words were, "Had I but served my God as diligently as I have served my King, he had not given me over in my gray hairs." **1530** A.D.

12. **Sir Thomas More,** a layman, had already received the Chancellorship, and already a new Ministry had settled into place; the Duke of Norfolk being President, and the Duke of Suffolk Vice-President of the Council.

QUESTIONS.—1. In what connection were doubts of the validity of Henry's marriage with Catherine first suggested? How long had they been married? What

had disappointed Henry? Who first dropped the hint that the marriage was illegal? To serve what end?

2. Who, meantime, had captivated Henry? What resolution did he therefore form?

3. Whom did Wolsey design for Henry's second wife? What effect did the King's announcement about Anne Boleyn produce on Wolsey?

4. What policy did the Pope adopt? Why? Who was blamed for the delay? What news added to his misery?

5. Whom did the Pope appoint to try the case? What inflamed the popular mind against Wolsey? Where did the Legatine Court meet?

6. What did Catherine do when her name was called?

7. Who delayed pronouncing judgment? What was the secret of his conduct?

8. Whose doom did this seal? How was he treated? Where did he retire? Who sympathized with him?

9. On what ground did the King's Bench convict Wolsey? How did the King treat him? How did his enemies proceed against him in the new Parliament? What was one of the charges against him? Who secured the rejection of the Bill?

10. Why was Wolsey sent to York? For what ceremony were preparations made there? What happened before the appointed day? How did the peasantry show their sympathy with Wolsey?

11. What delayed him on his journey? Where did he die? What were his last words?

12. Who had already succeeded him as Chancellor? Who were made President and Vice-President of the Council?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. **1527.—Gustavus Vasa,** having taken Stockholm in 1523, became King of Sweden. He raised Sweden to a high rank among European powers.

2. **1528.— Andrea Doria** expelled the French from Genoa. Doria was one of the greatest admirals of his age. He commanded the French fleet during the wars between Francis I. and Charles V. After the Battle of Pavia (1525) he accepted the command of the Papal fleet; but when Francis regained his liberty he reëntered the French service. When he found the independence of Genoa threatened by the French, he went over to the Emperor, and so hastened the deliverance of Italy from French domination. He refused the sovereignty; was called "The Father of Peace;" and died in 1560, aged ninety-three.

3. **1529.**—The Reformation doctrines began to be preached in France by **John Calvin.** He published his *Institutes* in 1536. He afterwards retired to Switzerland; acquiesced in burning Servetus for denying the Trinity, in 1553; and died at Genoa in 1564.

4. **1530.—The Diet of Augsburg,** at which Melancthon's "Confession" was published, marked the establishment of Protestantism in Germany. The Lutherans had given in their "Protest" (whence the name *Protestant*) at the Diet of Spires in 1529. The Protestant princes of Germany entered into the League of Smalcalde for mutual defence in 1531. Luther died in 1546.

5. **1530.**—The Emperor Charles V. was crowned King of Italy and Roman Emperor, at Bologna.

QUESTIONS.—1. Who became King of Sweden in 1527?—2. Who expelled the French from Genoa? Give a sketch of his career.—3. Who introduced the Reformation doctrines into France? When were his *Institutes* published? Where did he die?—4. For what is the Diet of Augsburg famous? Whence the origin of the name "Protestant"? What was the League of Smalcalde? When did Luther die?—5. To what dignity did Charles V. attain in 1530?

CHAPTER V.

THE CROWN AGAINST THE POPE.

1. Political Character of the Struggle.
2. Thomas Cranmer and Thomas Cromwell.
3. First Rupture with Rome.
4. The King the Head of the Church.
5. Persecution—Fisher and More.
6. Suppression of the Monasteries.
7. Incorporation of Wales with England.
8. Anne Boleyn.
9. Tyndale and Coverdale.
10. The Great Bible.
11. The Pilgrimage of Grace.
12. Birth of a Prince.
13. Statute of the Six Articles.
14. Fall of Cromwell.
15. Catherine Howard.
16. Catherine Parr.
17. Henry Howard, Earl of Surrey
18. Death of Henry VIII.
19. Hertford Protector.
20. Invasion of Scotland.

1. IN its first stage, the Reformation struggle in England was merely a quarrel between the King and the Pope, arising immediately out of Henry's doings in the divorce case. After the King was alienated from the Pope, it was natural that he should begin to look more favourably on the Reformers, who, since the Diet of Spires, had assumed the name **Protestants.** But the causes of the change were political, not religious: when Henry changed the government of the Church, he did not contemplate any change in its doctrines.

2. Thomas **Cranmer** and Thomas **Cromwell** were now Henry's chief advisers. Cranmer, a Fellow of Cambridge, had, some time before Wolsey's death, suggested that the divorce case should be referred to the Universities. The King, hearing of this, exclaimed, in his rough style, that Cranmer had "got the right sow by the ear," and acted on the hint. The case was laid before the Universities of Europe, and one or two decisions were given in Henry's favour. This made the fortune of Cranmer. Cromwell, too, gained the royal favour by a single suggestion—that the King should declare himself Supreme Head of the English Church, and obtain the divorce from its courts. His had been a chequered life. A factory clerk at Antwerp, a soldier in the sack of Rome, again a clerk at Venice

then a lawyer in England, he became at last Wolsey's solicitor. By his advice the King resolved to deny the supremacy of the Pope.

3. And now the chain, which had so long bound England to Rome, was breaking link by link. The Parliament of 1532 forbade the payment of First-fruits, or the first year's income of vacant bishoprics, given to the Pope. The Parliament of 1533 forbade Appeals to Rome. In the same year Cranmer, now Archbishop of Canterbury, annulled the King's marriage with Catherine, and **Anne Boleyn** was declared Queen.

1533 A.D. Catherine retired from the Court, and died three years afterwards in Huntingdonshire, leaving a daughter, Mary. When these things were heard at Rome, the Pope threatened to lay Henry under his ban, unless Queen Catherine were restored; but nothing could bend the stubborn King of England.

4. The dispute, when the divorce was thus settled, centred in the question, "Who was to be Head of the Church in England,—the King, or the Pope?" The point was decided by the Parliament of 1534 conferring the title with its privileges on Henry. This step made Henry more certainly than ever **an absolute monarch.** Hitherto the Church had been independent of the King, and had withstood him. Now

1534 A.D. the Church was declared to be his servant. The Parliament was entirely submissive to his will, and there was no power in the country to restrain or to resist him. The King's will was law, both in Church and in State. Personal liberty and rights of conscience were trodden under the royal foot.

5. It was soon evident that Henry was prepared to use the powers which Cromwell, now his chief minister, had put in his hands. Elizabeth Barton, or **the Holy Maid of Kent,** who headed an agitation against the divorce and the oppression of the Church, was executed along with her chief adherents. Fisher, Bishop of Rochester, was thrown into prison on

1535 A.D. a charge of treason. He and More afterwards refused to take the oath of allegiance prescribed in a new Act of Succession, and both of them were beheaded. This was the final breach with Rome. Pope Paul III. hurled the

thunders of excommunication at Henry; but the English King heeded them not.

6. The suppression of **monasteries** was then resolved on by the King; and Cromwell, to whom was given complete control of the Church, with the title of Vicar-General, proceeded to the work. The step was defended at the time on the ground that the monks generally led dissolute lives, and that many of the monasteries were dens of iniquity. But Henry's motive was not hatred of evil; he rather desired to deal a terrible blow at the Papal power, and at the same time to fill his coffers with the riches of the monks. Obedient as his Parliament usually was, it could not be prevailed on to go further in the meantime than to pass a Bill suppressing those monasteries which possessed revenues of less than £200 a year. **1536** Three years later, however, the greater monasteries A.D. were abolished. In all, 3,219 religious houses were suppressed, and the King was enriched with their yearly income of £161,000. With part of this sum six new bishoprics were established; but a large portion of it went to the endowment of the new aristocracy which the King had formed from his courtiers and dependants, to take the place of the old feudal nobility.

7. The worst evils of the Feudal System still lingered in **Wales.** The marchers, or great lords, claiming independent rule in their own districts, were at constant war with one another; pillage and murder occurred every day. But now these lords were deprived of separate jurisdiction, **1536** and the English laws were everywhere enforced. Hence- A.D. forth Wales sent twenty-four members to the English Parliament. This was the real union of Wales with England.

8. On the 19th of May 1536, Anne Boleyn was beheaded. While the divorce remained unsettled, Henry's passion for her had been violent; when his object was gained, he grew careless, then cold. A new face—that of Jane Seymour—had caught his changeful fancy. Anne's enemies plied him with evil stories; of her friends, Cranmer alone dared to raise his voice in her favour. She was tried on a charge of unfaithfulness to her husband, and was condemned to die. She met her doom calmly, and on the scaffold prayed for the King. She left a

daughter, afterwards Queen Elizabeth. The next day **Jane Seymour** became Queen.

9. During this reign the English Bible came into general use. A century and a half had passed since John Wyclif had translated the Scriptures into English; but the version used in England during the earlier years of Henry's reign was that of **William Tyndale**, a young scholar of Oxford, who published the New Testament in 1526, and portions of the Old Testament four years later. In 1536 he suffered death by fire in Flanders. In the same year **Miles Coverdale** of Cambridge published, with the authority of the King, the whole Bible in the English tongue.

1536 A.D.

These were translations from the Latin version called the Vulgate. By a royal order a copy of Coverdale's translation was chained to a pillar or a desk in every parish church, so that all who chose might read.

10. In 1539 appeared a translation called **The Great Bible**, prepared under the superintendence of Cranmer. The people received these gifts with joy. Families clubbed their savings to buy a copy of the Sacred Volume, still a costly purchase; and those who could read were often seen surrounded by a crowd of listeners, earnestly hearkening to the word of life.

1539 A.D.

11. The abolition of the monasteries and the despotic rule of Cromwell caused much discontent, especially in the northern counties. North of the Trent 40,000 men rose in arms under Lord Darcy and a gentleman named Robert Aske. Their avowed object being to restore the Roman Catholic Church, they called their insurrection the **Pilgrimage of Grace**. Priests marched before them, while their banners bore the crucifix and the chalice. They held York and Hull for a while; but the promise of a general pardon, and the heavy rains of winter, induced them to return to their homes. A renewal of the revolt early in the next spring came to nothing; but it gave Cromwell the excuse he wanted for seizing the leaders and punishing them with relentless cruelty. Aske and Lord Darcy, several abbots, and even some ladies, were sent to the block. The executioner was busy for many months afterwards. One of the last victims was the aged Lady

1536 A.D.

Salisbury,[1] whose sole crime was that her son, Cardinal Pole, had published a book against the King. The Cardinal resided at Rome, and was beyond Cromwell's reach; but his friends at home were made to suffer for him. His brother, Lord Montague, and his kinsman, Lord Exeter,[2] had been beheaded shortly before his mother.

12. The birth of a son, baptized Edward, added to Henry's triumph; and even the death of his favourite Queen, Jane Seymour, which occurred a few days after the prince was born, was almost disregarded in his unbounded joy. Oct. 12, 1537 A.D.

13. Though the King had broken with Rome, he retained many of the old doctrines. He was alarmed by the license into which the liberty he had granted had been converted. No one should have any right to believe what he denied, or to deny what he believed. He therefore embodied his opinions in the **Statute of the Six Articles,**[3] which all were required on pain of death to accept. From the persecution which followed this enactment, it was called "*The Bloody Statute.*" While Roman Catholics were beheaded for denying the royal supremacy, Protestants were burned for denying the Six Articles. About the same time it was decided by Parliament that Royal Proclamations should have the force of regular laws. Though this was a measure utterly opposed to the spirit of the English Constitution, it did not greatly enlarge the King's power. It only enabled him to provide for emergencies while Parliament was not sitting. 1539 A.D.

14. Henry's fourth wife was **Anne of Cleves,** the daughter of a Protestant prince. Cromwell, desirous of strengthening the cause of the Reformation, had proposed the union. A picture of the princess was shown to Henry; he was pleased with her face, and she was invited to England. But when he actually saw her, he called her "a great Flanders mare." She had

[1] *Lady Salisbury.*—Margaret Plantagenet, Countess of Salisbury, was daughter of George, Duke of Clarence, brother of Edward IV.

[2] *Lord Exeter.*—Henry Courtenay, Marquis of Exeter, was grandson of Edward IV., through his mother.

[3] *Six Articles.*—These were—(1) The doctrine of the real presence, or transubstantiation; (2) communion in one kind; (3) perpetual obligation of vows of chastity; (4) utility of private masses; (5) celibacy of the clergy; (6) auricular confession.

neither beauty nor grace, and could speak no language except her own. After some delay the marriage took place; but the King never forgave Cromwell. The withdrawal of the King's favour was fatal to his power. There was absolutely no one to befriend or plead for him. The nobility hated him because he had defied them and excluded them from power; the clergy hated him for his spoliation of Church lands; the common people hated him for his tyranny. He was accused,

July 28, **1540** A.D. by Bill of Attainder, of heresy and treason, and was brought to the block. The Duke of Norfolk succeeded him as Henry's chief minister.

15. Anne of Cleves, much to her own content, was separated from her husband, and lived in England upon a pension of £3,000 a year until her death. **Catherine Howard,** niece to the Duke of Norfolk, was then raised to the throne amid the rejoicings of the Roman Catholics, who hailed her elevation as an omen of good. For about a year and a half the charms of Catherine Howard delighted the King. Then she was accused of unchastity, and was beheaded on Tower Hill (1542 A.D.). With her died an accomplice of her guilt, Lady Rochford, who had been chief witness against Queen Anne Boleyn. Among the later martyrs of this reign was a heroic lady, Anne Ascue of Lincolnshire, who suffered by fire in 1546 for refusing to believe in transubstantiation at Henry's order. The permission to read the Bible, formerly unrestricted, was now confined to the upper classes, and to simple reading without exposition.

16. Wars with Scotland and France occupied Henry's later years: the details are not of much importance. His **1543** A.D. sixth wife was **Catherine Parr,** widow of Lord Latimer. She survived her husband, although her head was once in great danger. One day, while talking of certain religious doctrines, she opposed his ideas. In high wrath, he ordered an impeachment to be drawn up against her. A friend, happening to see the paper, told her of it; and, when next she saw the King, she spoke so humbly of the foolishness of her sex, and seemed so thankful for what he had taught her, that when the Chancellor came to arrest her, Henry bade him begone.

17. The last victim who suffered from this tyrant's wrath was **Henry Howard, Earl of Surrey,** famed as the purifier of English poetry, and the writer of our earliest blank verse. He was a cousin of Catherine Howard, and was beheaded on suspicion of aiming at the crown. The fact of his quartering on his shield the arms of Edward the Confessor, long borne by his ancestors, was the chief circumstance advanced in support of this charge. His father, the Duke of Norfolk,[1] who had been seized at the same time, lay in prison awaiting the same fate, when the news came that Henry was dead. 1547 A.D.

18. For some days it was well known in the Court that the King was dying, but all feared to tell him so. At length Sir Antony Denny ventured to warn him of the coming change. He desired to see Cranmer, but was speechless when the Archbishop arrived. He died soon afterwards. 1547 A.D.

19. *EDWARD VI.*[2]—The will of the late King directed that Edward, now only in his tenth year, should come of age at eighteen. In the meantime a Council of sixteen "executors" was to manage the affairs of the kingdom. The leading member of this Council was the Earl of Hertford, brother of Jane Seymour, and therefore uncle of the young King. Hertford, whose leanings were strongly Protestant, got rid as soon as possible, of the Roman Catholic members of the Council, and prevailed with his own friends to appoint him Protector, and governor of the King. Many peers were advanced to higher rank, and many new peers were created. Among the former, the Protector received the title of Duke of **Somerset;** and John Dudley, Viscount Lisle, afterwards Somerset's great rival, was made Earl of Warwick. Archbishop Cranmer was a leading member of the Council of Regency.

20. It was enjoined by Henry's will that a marriage should take place, if possible, between Edward and young Mary of Scotland. But Scottish feeling, influenced by France, was strong against the match; and, to force the nation into consent, Somerset led an army of 18,000 over the Border. The

[1] *Duke of Norfolk.*—He remained a prisoner in the Tower till 1553.

[2] *Edward VI.*—Son of Henry VIII and Jane Seymour. Reigned 6 years.

Regent Arran met him at **Pinkie**, near Musselburgh, but was defeated (September 10, 1547). News of plots against his power soon recalled the Protector to London, and the campaign ended without advantage to the English, while the attempt to extort consent displeased even those Scotchmen who had been in favour of the union. The general feeling was well expressed by the Earl of Huntly when he said, "He disliked not the match, but he hated the manner of the wooing." To save her from the risk of being forcibly carried off by her English wooers, the young Queen of Scotland was sent to France.

QUESTIONS.—1. What was the nature of the Reformation struggle in England in its first stage? On whom, after his quarrel with the Pope, did Henry begin to look with favour? How far did Henry's desire for change at first go?

2. Who were then Henry's chief advisers? What suggestion made Cranmer's fortune? What was the result of the reference to the universities? What was Cromwell's suggestion? What kind of life had Cromwell led? What advice of his did Henry resolve to follow?

3. What step was taken by the Parliament of 1532? What, by that of the following year? Who annulled the King's marriage with Catherine? When? Who was then declared Queen? What did the Pope do when he heard of these doings?

4. In what question did the dispute then centre? When was it decided? In what way? What effect had this declaration on Henry's power? How did it make him absolute? What was the effect on personal liberty?

5. Who was now Henry's chief minister? Who was the Holy Maid of Kent? For what was she executed? For what were Fisher and More beheaded?

6. On what step did Henry then resolve? To whom was the work intrusted? On what ground was the step defended? What were Henry's real motives? How far did Parliament agree to go? When were the greater monasteries abolished? How many in all were suppressed? What was done with their revenues?

7. Where did the worst evils of the Feudal System still linger? What changes were made in 1536?

8. When was Anne Boleyn beheaded? On what charge was she condemned? Who was the next Queen? When did Henry marry her?

9. What now became the standard of Protestant faith? Whose translation was used at first? When was Coverdale's Bible published? What royal order was issued regarding it?

10. When did the Great Bible appear? Who superintended its preparation? How did the people show their appreciation of these gifts?

11. What led to a rising in the northern counties? What was it called? How was it suppressed? For what did a renewal of the revolt give excuse? Mention some of the chief victims. Why was Lady Salisbury executed? Who had been beheaded shortly before her?

12. What event filled Henry with joy in 1537? Who died a few days later?

13. Though the King had broken with Rome, what did he retain? What alarmed him? In what did he embody his opinions? What name did the statute acquire? What decision of Parliament was opposed to the spirit of the Constitution?

14. Who was Henry's fourth wife? Who had made the match? What disappointed Henry? To whose fall did it lead? How had he alienated the several classes of the people? What was his end? Who succeeded him as minister?

15. How was Anne of Cleves got rid of? Who was the next Queen? What was her fate? Who died along with her? What lady suffered martyrdom in 1546? What restrictions were put on the reading of the Bible?

16. What wars occupied Henry's later years? Who was his sixth wife? What risk did she run on one occasion?

17. Who was the last victim of Henry's wrath? On what charge did he suffer? How did his father escape?

18. When did Henry die?

19. What did his will direct regarding the coming of age of his son? Who were to manage the government in the meantime? Who was the leading member of the Council? Whom did he expel from it? To what offices was he appointed? What changes took place in the peerage?

20. For what marriage had Henry been anxious? What prevented the match? What step did Somerset take? What battle was fought? Why had the scheme to be abandoned? Where was the young Queen of Scots sent?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. **1531.—Florence,** hitherto a commonwealth, became a duchy under the Medici family, protected by the Pope and the Emperor. The other Italian commonwealths (Pisa, Lucca, &c.) were at this time brought under the power of the Emperor as King of Italy. (See 1569.)

2. **1532.—Peru** was conquered by the Spaniards under Francisco Pizarro, who treated the natives with wanton cruelty. Atahualpa, the last Inca (or King) of Peru, was strangled in 1533. Pizarro was assassinated at Lima, the capital of Peru, in 1541.

3. **1533.**—Ivan IV. (the Terrible) succeeded to the Russian throne. He extended the Russian dominions to the Caspian Sea. Russia was still cut off from the Baltic by the Swedes and Poles, and from the Black Sea by the Crim Tartars. The only Russian port for foreign trade was Archangel on the White Sea.

4. **1537.**—The Emperor Charles V. invaded France; but the French desolated the land, and forced him to retreat.

5. **1540.**—Milan in Italy was annexed to the Spanish Crown by Philip II. It had been conquered in 1499 by the French, who were expelled in 1525. It continued to be a Spanish dependency till 1714, when it was ceded to Austria.

6. **1544.**—The Peace of **Crespy** concluded the wars between Francis I. of France and Charles V., the Emperor.

QUESTIONS.—1. What change took place at Florence in 1531? Under whom were the other Italian Commonwealths placed?—2. Who was the Spanish conqueror of Peru? What was his fate?—3. In what direction was Russia extended by Ivan IV.? Who stood between her and the Baltic and Black Seas? What was the sole Russian port for foreign trade at that time?—4. How did the French force the Emperor to retreat in 1537?—5. Who obtained Milan in 1540? When did it cease to be a Spanish dependency?—6. What peace concluded the wars between Francis I. and Charles V.? Give the date.

CHAPTER VI.

THE REFORMATION.

1. The Church of England.
2. Rise of Warwick.
3. Consequences of the Suppression of the Monasteries.
4. Revolt in Norfolk.
5. Fall of Somerset.
6. Imprisonment of Gardiner.
7. Execution of Somerset.
8. Northumberland's Schemes.
9. Death of Edward VI.
10. Proclamation of Lady Jane Grey
11. Mary Queen.

1. The breach with Rome being now complete, the way was open for making changes in the **doctrine and worship** of the Church of England. The Protector was a Protestant, and he took care that all who had access to the young King should be of the Reformed faith. Under this fostering influence, the Church of England began to assume her present form,—a work in which Archbishop Cranmer took the largest share. He was assisted by Ridley, Bishop of London, and Latimer, Bishop of Worcester. Freer circulation was given to the Bible. To secure uniformity of doctrine, twelve Homilies or Sermons were published, and were ordered to be read in churches. The statues and pictures in the churches were removed. The Latin Mass was abolished, and replaced by the **Liturgy**, still read in the Established Church of England. And, lastly, the faith of English Protestants was summed up in Forty-two Articles.[1]

2. It has been already said that Somerset hastened from Scotland in alarm. There was a plot against his power. His own brother, Admiral Lord Seymour, who had married Catherine Parr, the widow of Henry VIII., was his most dangerous foe. Though this conspiracy was checked by the execution of Seymour on Tower Hill, yet opposition far more fatal to the Protector was rising. **Dudley, Earl of Warwick,** was a member of the Council of Regency, in which his restless ambition made him a leading man. Now, as the head of a rival faction, he began to measure his strength with Somerset.

3. Much more important than the struggles of two ambitious men was the condition of the people at this time. **Monasteries** had had undoubted claims on the regard of the people. The poor man and the traveller had found there a shelter for the

[1] *Forty-two Articles.*—They were reduced to Thirty-nine in 1562, and are still authoritative in the Church of England.

night. The domains attached had been let out at moderate rents to small farmers, who had found the monks not only indulgent landlords, but ready purchasers of the farm produce. Discontent and rebellion had therefore followed the suppression of these houses; and the embers of bad feeling were still alive.

4. The working classes had, besides, new grievances. A great demand for wool had turned a large part of England into sheep-walks, and there was little field labour to be done. Wages were low, and were paid in the base coin issued by Henry VIII. to supply his own needs. The price of food rose high. Revolt burst out in many shires of England. Exeter was besieged by 10,000 men. Ket, a tanner, sat under an oak tree, giving law to the gentlemen of Norfolk. In all cases the rebels were soon put down. Ket was hanged at Norwich, after his followers had been scattered by the Earl of Warwick.

5. While Warwick had been thus employed, troops, sent from France to aid the Scottish Regent, had driven the English garrisons from the castles of Broughty and Haddington. The **Protector** was then glad to make peace; for his position was daily growing more perilous. Ever since the Battle of Pinkie, he had assumed the authority of the Crown, and had disdained to ask advice from the Council. Many blamed him for the execution of his brother. The Roman Catholics cried out against the man who had pulled down churches and the houses of bishops, that he might build his palace in the Strand.[1] Warwick artfully used these circumstances to strengthen his own faction. The feeling against Somerset grew so strong that he was forced to resign his Protectorship, and was indicted for usurpation of the King's power. On his knees before the Council he made full confession of all the charges. He was then, by a vote of the Parliament, stripped of all power and condemned to pay a heavy fine. By the intervention of the King, however, he escaped the fine, and soon regained his freedom.

6. The Council demanded that all should adopt the new forms of worship. They began with Gardiner; and on his refusal,

[1] *Palace in the Strand.*—Somerset House. The original house built by the Protector in 1549 was demolished in 1775, when the present fine building was erected on its site. It is used for public offices and scientific societies, the east wing being occupied by King's College.

deprived him of his office and committed him to prison. Three other bishops were at the same time forbidden to preach. But in the Princess Mary they found a stanch opponent, whom they could not move. Her they let alone, lest they should provoke a war with the Emperor Charles, her cousin.

7. Warwick's ambition was now gratified with the title, Duke of Northumberland. His rival, **Somerset**, though fallen, was still popular. The time was now ripe to crush that rival for ever. Arrested on a charge of raising rebellion in the north, and of plotting to murder Northumberland and others, the unhappy ex-Protector was tried before the Marquis of Winchester as High Steward, and a jury of twenty-six peers. Convicted of felony, he was beheaded on Tower Hill. The people, forgetting all his failings in the hour of his death, dipped their kerchiefs in his blood, and laid them up among their household treasures.

Jan. 22, 1552 A.D.

8. **Northumberland** now ruled England; and, as the King's health had been for some time failing, visions of securing the crown for his own family filled his ambitious mind. He persuaded Edward that the Princesses Mary and Elizabeth could not wear the crown, since they had been declared illegitimate by an Act of Parliament; that the Queen of Scots was also excluded as a stranger, betrothed to the Dauphin of France; that the succession belonged to the Marchioness of Dorset, daughter of Mary Tudor, who was once Queen of France, and afterwards Duchess of Suffolk; and that the next heir was therefore Lady Jane Grey, the grand-daughter of the Duchess. He had previously married his fourth son, Lord Guildford Dudley, to the Lady Jane. The King's affection for the Protestant faith inclined him to this settlement of the crown; and, although some of the Council hesitated, the Duke prevailed, and letters-patent were issued, transferring the crown to the youngest branch of the Tudor line.

9. Scarcely was this done when the King grew very ill. The worst symptoms of consumption appeared. Northumberland, constantly by his bedside, placed him under the care of a woman professing great skill. Her medicines made him much worse, and on this rests the suspicion that his death was hastened by poison. He died at Green-

1553 A.D.

wich, aged sixteen years. He was a gentle boy, of very studious habits, and of most promising disposition. A diary from his own pen, giving an account of his reign, is preserved in the British Museum.[1]

10. *MARY I.*[2]—When Edward died, **Lady Jane Grey** was at once proclaimed Queen, by order of Northumberland. She was only sixteen, accomplished, beautiful, and good. Studying Greek and Latin with the late King, she had learned, like him, to love retirement. The dangers of a throne alarmed her gentle heart, and it was very unwillingly that she yielded to the wishes of her father-in-law.

11. But she was not destined to be Queen. The feeling of the nation leaned towards **Mary**, the daughter of Catherine of Aragon. Writing from Suffolk, she summoned around her the leading nobles and gentlemen. Her force increased daily, while Northumberland could muster only 6,000 men. Even these did not remain with him long. The councillors and the citizens of London declared for Mary, and she was proclaimed everywhere,—the first Queen regnant of England. Northumberland, Suffolk, Guildford Dudley, and Jane Grey were arrested. Northumberland was executed at once; the others were spared a little longer.

1553 A.D.

QUESTIONS.—1. For what changes was the way now open? Of what did the Protector take care? Who took the largest share in the work of reformation? Mention some of the changes. In how many articles was the Protestant faith summed up?

2. Who was the Protector's most dangerous foe? How was his plot checked? Who now began to measure his strength with Somerset?

3. Why had the suppression of the monasteries excited discontent?

4. What grievances had the working classes? In what did their discontent end? Who headed the revolt in Norfolk? What became of him?

5. What led the Protector to make peace with Scotland? On what different grounds was he unpopular? Who encouraged the feeling against him? What was Somerset forced to do? How was he punished?

6. What did the Council require every one to sign? Who was imprisoned for refusing? Whom did they find it impossible to move?

7. To what rank was Warwick raised? On what charges was Somerset tried? What was his fate? How did the people show their regard for him?

8. What design did Northumberland now entertain? Whom did he declare to be nearest heir? On what grounds? What inclined the King to this settlement? What was done to give effect to it?

9. By what was this followed? What

[1] Eighteen grammar schools were founded during the short reign of Edward VI.

[2] *Mary I.*—Daughter of Henry VIII and Catherine of Aragon. Married Philip II. of Spain. Reigned 5 years

suspicion attaches to Northumberland? On what ground? When did Edward VI. die? Where? What book of his has been preserved?

10. Who was at once proclaimed Queen? What was her feeling regarding the crown?

11. Towards whom did the feeling of the nation lean? Whom did she summon around her? How many followers had Northumberland? What decided the cause in Mary's favour? Who were arrested? Which of them was executed at once?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. **1548.**—The seventeen provinces of the Netherlands were annexed to the German Empire, and were called the Circle of Burgundy.

2. **1552.**—Charles V. was repulsed by the Duke of Guise at Metz. Three imperial bishoprics—Metz, Toul, and Verdun—were then added to France, though Lothringen (Lorraine), in which they were situated, still remained nominally a fief of the Empire. Metz was not recovered by Germany till 1871. The Duke of Guise belonged to the House of Lorraine.

3. **1552.**—The Treaty of **Passau** secured the toleration of Protestantism in Germany. It was confirmed by the Peace of Augsburg in 1555.

4. **1556.**—The Emperor Charles V. abdicated, and was succeeded by his brother Ferdinand I. in the Empire, and by his son **Philip II.** in Spain, Naples, and Sicily. Charles retired to a Spanish monastery, where he soon afterwards died.

QUESTIONS.—1. What was the Circle of Burgundy? When was it formed?—2. What part of Germany was added to France in 1552? When did Germany recover Metz?—3. What did the Treaty of Passau secure? When was it confirmed?—4. When did Charles V. abdicate? Who succeeded him as Emperor? Who, as King of Spain? Where did Charles retire?

CHAPTER VII.

THE MARIAN REACTION.

1. The Protestant Policy Reversed.
2. The Spanish Match.
3. Wyatt's Rebellion.
4. Execution of Jane Grey.
5. Reünion with Rome.
6. The Persecution.
7. The Exiles in Frankfort and Geneva.
8. The First Victim.
9. The Death of Cranmer.
10. The Loss of Calais.
11. The Death of Mary.

1. THE feeling that she had the best claim was the chief motive of Mary's supporters. She was now in her thirty-seventh year. Her temper had been soured by her mother's and her own disgrace. She was warmly attached to the old faith, and her great object was its restoration in England.

One of her earliest acts, therefore, released from prison the Roman Catholic nobles and prelates who had been sent there in the late reign. **Gardiner** and **Bonner** were restored to their sees; the former became the Queen's chief minister. The Duke of Norfolk received his freedom. And, in direct violation of her promise to the men of Suffolk, the Church laws of Edward VI. were repealed: Cranmer, Ridley, Latimer, and other Protestants were sent to prison. All England looked with alarm on these things.

2. Another step towards Mary's great end was the **Spanish match,** which was adopted as a counterpoise to the projected French match of Mary Queen of Scots. In July 1554 she became the wife of Philip, son of the Emperor Charles V., and heir of the Spanish crown, which he received eighteen months later. This alliance gratified Mary's ambition as well as her affection; for she was attached to Philip. He, however, soon grew tired of a wife who, besides being jealous and ill-tempered, was eleven years older than himself. Being no favourite with the English, whom he treated with cold Spanish ceremony, he left the island in less than a year. Except for a few days in 1557, he never saw his wife again.

July, **1554** A.D.

3. The great mass of the English people disliked this marriage. It was said that England would become a province of Spain, and that the Inquisition would soon be at work in London. **Rebellion** appeared in Devonshire and Kent. The former was easily suppressed; but the men of Kent had seized Southwark and Westminster before they were dispersed. Their leader, Sir Thomas Wyatt, was taken at Temple-bar, and executed. Four hundred of his followers also suffered death.

4. The Duke of Suffolk was concerned in this rising, and his guilt was thought a good excuse for the execution of his daughter, **Lady Jane Grey,** and her husband. They were beheaded within the Tower walls. Dudley suffered first; and, as Jane was on her way to the block, she passed his bleeding body. She died calmly, persevering to the end in her own faith. Her father, Suffolk, soon met the same fate. On suspicion of having been concerned in the plot, the Princess Elizabeth was sent first to the Tower, and afterwards to Woodstock.

5. Mary and Gardiner, her Lord Chancellor, were now prepared to carry out their great design,—**reunion with the Papal See.** Cardinal Reginald Pole, whose attainder had been reversed, arrived as Papal Legate, charged with the duty of pardoning England for its schism, and of receiving it again into the bosom of the Church. Parliament voted for a formal return to its submission to Rome, and received absolution from the Legate, the members kneeling in his presence. Thus was the policy of the two previous reigns reversed by a single stroke.

6. Pole recommended toleration to those of the Protestant faith; but Gardiner and Bonner cried out for the stake and the fagot, and the Queen was of their mind. Within the next three years, 288 men, women, and children were burned for their religion, while thousands suffered in a less degree. The chief scene of these tragedies was **Smithfield** in London. There many, condemned to death, perished amid the flames of blazing fagots.

1555 A.D.

7. More than a thousand clergymen were driven from their pulpits; and as many of them as could, fled to the Continent to escape the fury of the tempest. Such lived chiefly at Frankfort and Geneva. Among them were Foxe, who wrote the *Book of Martyrs;* and Coverdale, the translator of the *English Bible.* They met also refugees from other countries, chief of whom was John Knox, the Reformer of Scotland. Associated during their exile with him, and with the leading spirits of the Continental Reformation, they adopted many of their ideas regarding the Protestant faith and worship.

8. John Rogers, Canon of St. Paul's, was the first victim of the persecution. Hooper, Bishop of Gloucester, was in torture three-quarters of an hour: one of his hands dropped off, the other still beat his breast, and he prayed aloud till his tongue swelled so that he could not speak. **Ridley,** Bishop of London, and **Latimer,** once Bishop of Worcester, suffered together at Oxford. "Be of good comfort, Master Ridley," cried Latimer, as they bound his aged limbs to the stake; "we shall this day light such a candle, by God's grace, in England, as I trust shall never be put out." Bags of gunpowder laid around them killed Latimer by the explosion; but Ridley's death was very slow. (October 16, 1555.)

9. Early in 1556 **Cranmer** was led to the stake at Oxford. Broken down by long imprisonment, and sorely tempted by promises of life and honour, he signed six several recantations. But a calmer hour brought contrition; and, firm in the faith he had adopted, he died without fear. Of his own accord he held out his right hand in the kindling flames until it was a blackened cinder, while he cried oftener than once, "That unworthy hand!" When the fire seized his body, his calm face bore no signs of pain. **Mar. 21, 1556 A.D**

10. Though Mary was deeply grieved at the coldness of her husband, she joined him in his war with France. An English army, sent into the Netherlands, helped to seize the French fortress of St. Quentin.[1] But this trifling success was followed by a heavy loss. Suddenly in mid-winter the Duke of Guise appeared before Calais. The town, which lay in the midst of marshes, was weakly garrisoned, since it was the custom of the English Government, for the sake of economy, to withdraw most of the troops late in autumn. Guise moved his men across the frozen swamps, and seized a sand-hill called the Rysbank, on which he placed his cannon. Assaulted by land and by sea, this key of France, held by the English since 1347, was lost in eight days. **1558 A.D.**

11. Mary's health was failing fast. So deeply did she feel her loss in France, that she said the word "Calais" would be found after death written on her heart. Her husband neglected her. She knew that her subjects disliked her. She had no children; and her half-sister Elizabeth, whom she hated as a Protestant and the daughter of Anne Boleyn, would next wear the crown. All these causes working together produced a lingering fever of which she died. So general was the discontent at the time, that her death probably saved the country from a rebellion. **1558 A.D.**

QUESTIONS.—1. What was the chief motive of Mary's supporters? What had soured her temper? What was her great object? What was one of her earliest acts? Who became her chief minister? What other reäctionary steps were taken?

2. Whom did Mary marry? What was the object of the Spanish match? Why did Philip grow tired of his wife? When did he leave the island? Why did he go?

3. How did the nation regard the Spanish marriage? Where did rebell-

[1] *St. Quentin.*—Eighty-seven miles north-east of Paris. (See *Map*, p. 166.)

ion appear? Who was leader of the Kent rising? How was he punished? How many of his followers were executed?

4. On what excuse were Jane Grey and her husband executed? What was done with the Princess Elizabeth? On what ground?

5. For what were Mary and Gardiner now prepared? Who arrived as Papal Legate? With what duty was he charged? How were these things carried out?

6. What then began? Who advised toleration? Who urged persecution? How many suffered in the three following years?

7. How many clergymen were driven from their pulpits? Where did they take refuge? Who were among them? Whom did they meet abroad? What effect had this companionship?

8. Who was the first victim of the persecution? Who suffered together at Oxford? What were Latimer's words as they bound him to the stake?

9. When was Cranmer executed? What had he been induced to do? How did he show his contrition for this?

10. In what continental war did Mary join? In what success did the English army share? By what great loss was it followed? What made its capture easy? How long had England held it?

11. How did the loss of Calais affect Mary? What other troubles distressed her? When did she die? In what state was the country at the time?

CHAPTER VIII.

PROTESTANTISM RESTORED.

1. The Thirty-nine Articles.
2. Claim of Mary Stewart.
3. Elizabeth and the French Protestants.
4. Mary Stewart in England.
5. The Duke of Norfolk's Plots.
6. The Northern Revolt and its Consequences.

1. *ELIZABETH.*[1]—Great were the rejoicings when Elizabeth, the daughter of Anne Boleyn, was proclaimed Queen. During her sister's reign she had lived chiefly at Hatfield House, nominally free, but really a prisoner. As Queen, one of her first measures was the restoration of Protestantism. This work was completed in 1563, when the Forty-two Articles of Cranmer were reduced to Thirty-nine, and the **Church of England** was thus established in its present form. The statesman by whose advice Elizabeth was guided in this change, and in all the leading transactions of her reign, was William Cecil, afterwards Lord Burleigh.

2. Scotland, France, Spain, and the Netherlands were the countries with which the foreign policy of Elizabeth was chiefly concerned. The marriage of Mary Queen of Scots with the Dauphin, afterwards Francis II. of France, united the first two

[1] *Elizabeth.*—Daughter of Henry VIII. and Anne Boleyn. Reigned 45 years.

lands more closely than ever. Not content with her double crown, Mary claimed that of England, on the ground that Elizabeth had been declared illegitimate, and that she herself was next heir, being descended from Margaret, eldest daughter of Henry VII.

3. Soon after the departure of Mary from France in 1561 there began a civil war there, which, like most of the great European wars for a century after the Reformation, was a struggle between Protestants and Roman Catholics. **1562** The English Queen sided with the Protestants; and in A.D. 1562 the Prince of Condé, leader of **the Huguenots**, as the French Protestants were called, put Havre into her hands. But the fortress was lost to England in less than a year.

4. After seven stormy years in Scotland, **Mary Queen of Scots**,[1] defeated at Langside,[2] fled across the Border and cast herself on the mercy of Elizabeth. But Eliza- **1568** beth was not in a position to give her a friendly recep- A.D. tion, even if she had been inclined to do so; and the hapless Queen was cast into prison. Elizabeth's treatment of Mary has sometimes been ascribed wholly to personal jealousy of a rival beauty as well as of a rival for her throne. The reasons of State policy, however, are quite sufficient to account for it. England was identified with the Protestant cause, not only at home, but also in France, in the Netherlands, and in Scotland. Mary was the representative of the opposite party —the centre of its hopes in England. The English Government, therefore, could hardly have regarded Mary in any other light than as the chief enemy to its policy. Indeed, if Cecil had had his way, Mary would have been sent back to Scotland at once, to be tried and punished by her enemies there.

5. Mary's presence in England, even as a prisoner, was a constant source of annoyance and danger to Elizabeth. In

---

[1] *Mary Queen of Scots.*—After her return to Scotland in 1561, she had married her cousin, Lord Darnley. Two years later Darnley was murdered, and Mary married the Earl of Bothwell, who was suspected of the murder. She surrendered to the Protestant Lords, who had raised an army against her, and she was imprisoned in Loch Leven Castle. She escaped thence, was defeated at Langside, and then fled to England. Mary was a prisoner in different English castles during the next eighteen years.

[2] *Langside.*—In Renfrewshire, 2 miles south of Glasgow.

1569, the **Duke of Norfolk,** the first nobleman in England, and a man of the best character, was induced to offer her his hand in marriage. It was a dangerous step, and provoked the anger of Elizabeth. He was at once committed to the Tower, but was released on promise that he would give up his design of marrying Mary. Two years later, however, the Duke was tempted to renew his plots for the release of the Scottish Queen, and entered into a secret correspondence with the Court of Spain. A servant whom he intrusted with a bag of gold, and a letter for Mary's friends in Scotland, carried both to Lord Burleigh. Treasonable papers were found under the mats and tiles of Norfolk's house. He was arrested, tried, and executed.

1572 A.D.

6. In the meantime the peace of the North had been seriously disturbed by a revolt headed by the Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland, who marshalled their followers under the **Banner of the Five Wounds.** It was joined by many Roman Catholics of rank, but by very few of the common people. The Earl of Sussex dispersed the rebels by his mere presence, without striking a blow. Then followed a merciless persecution of all who had taken part in the rising. The Pope retaliated by a Bull of Deposition against Elizabeth. This provoked the Parliament to pass a **new Statute of Praemunire,**[1] and to attaint the northern Earls. This was followed by a **Test Act,** which required all civil officers to subscribe the Thirty-nine Articles. Thus was Elizabeth forced by the attitude of the friends of Mary to declare Protestantism to be the religion of the State, and the first note was struck of that battle for **uniformity,** which chiefly occupied the remainder of Elizabeth's reign.

QUESTIONS.—1. How was Elizabeth's accession hailed? Where had she lived during the late reign? What was one of her first measures? When was this work completed? Who was Elizabeth's chief adviser?

2. With what countries was the foreign policy of Elizabeth chiefly concerned? What united Scotland and France more closely than ever? To what did Mary lay claim? On what ground?

3. What war broke out in France soon after Mary left it? Which side did Elizabeth espouse? What fortress did she hold for a time?

4. When did Mary Stewart flee to England? How did Elizabeth treat her? To what has that treatment been ascribed? What are quite sufficient

[1] *Statute of Praemunire.*—The first Statute of Praemunire, forbidding the introduction of Papal bulls into England, was passed in 1353. A second Statute of Praemunire was passed in 1392. (See p. 150.)

to account for it? What were those reasons? What had Cecil advised?

5. Of what was Mary's presence in England a constant source? Why was the Duke of Norfolk committed to the Tower? When was he released? What happened two years later?

6. How had the North been disturbed in the meantime? Who dispersed the rebels? What followed? How did the Pope retaliate? What did Parliament do? What Act followed? What did it require? Of what did this strike the first note?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. **1560.—Madrid** was made the capital of Spain by Philip II. The former capital was Toledo. Philip built at Madrid the famous palace of the Escurial, in the form of a gridiron in token of gratitude to St. Lawrence, on whose day he defeated the French at St. Quentin, 1557.

2. **1560.**—Francis II. of France (husband of Mary of Scotland) died in the second year of his reign. During his short reign of seventeen months, the Protestants and the Roman Catholics in France were preparing for their fierce struggle. He was succeeded by Charles IX., a son of Catherine de Medici, who wielded the power of the crown in Charles's name.

3. **1563.**—The **Council of Trent**—an important General Council of the Roman Catholic Church—completed its sittings. It began in 1545, and was continued (with interruptions) for eighteen years. It settled the canon of Scripture, and the leading tenets in the creed of the Church of Rome.

4. **1564.**—The Institution of the **Jesuits,** or Society of Jesus, was confirmed by Papal bull. It had been founded at Paris in 1534 by Ignatius Loyola, who had in early life been a page of Ferdinand V. of Spain.

5. **1566.**—Philip II. of Spain having introduced the Inquisition in the **Netherlands,** the Dutch revolted, and the Duke of Alva was sent to punish them. Counts Egmont and Horn, two patriotic noblemen, were executed in 1568. In 1574 the Dutch forced the Spaniards to raise the siege of Leyden, by opening the sluices and flooding the country. In 1576 the Dutch Republic was founded, with **William of Orange** as Stadtholder. He was shot, with the connivance of Philip, in 1584.

6. **1569.**—The Duchy of Florence became the Grand Duchy of Tuscany under Cosmo I. of the House of Medici. (See 1531.)

7. **1571.**—The Turkish fleet was almost annihilated at **Lepanto** by Don John of Austria, the half-brother of Philip II. of Spain, commanding the fleets of Spain and Venice. In spite of this defeat the Turks retained the island of Cyprus, which they had conquered from the Venetians.

QUESTIONS.—1. Who made Madrid the capital of Spain? What was the former capital? What palace did he build at Madrid?—2. When did Fran-

cis II. of France die? Who was his wife?—3. When did the Council of Trent complete its sittings? How long had it sat? What did it settle?—4. Who founded the Institution of the Jesuits? When was it confirmed by Papal bull?—5. Why did the Dutch revolt in 1566? Who was sent to punish them? Who were executed in 1568? What siege was raised by flooding the country? When was the Dutch Republic founded?—6. To what was the Duchy of Florence changed in 1569?—7. Who gained the Battle of Lepanto? Who were defeated? What island did they nevertheless retain?

CHAPTER IX.

SUPREMACY AND UNIFORMITY.

1. The Puritan Secession.
2. The Acts of Supremacy and Uniformity.
3. The Court of High Commission.
4. St. Bartholomew and the Dutch Republic.
5. Elizabeth and the Netherlands.
6. Babington's Conspiracy.
7. Trial of Mary Stewart
8. The Sentence.
9. The Death.
10. The Spanish Armada.
11. Preparations in England.
12. Approach of the Armada.
13. Its Defeat and Dispersion.
14. Elizabeth's Favourites.
15. The Earl of Essex.
16. Essex in Ireland.
17. Death of Elizabeth.
18. The Queen and the Commons.

1. In the time of Elizabeth, ecclesiastical affairs became complicated by a division in the Protestant camp. Early in her reign, those Protestants who had fled to the Continent in the time of Mary returned to England. For a time they remained in connection with the Church of England; but being pressed to acknowledge the authority of Elizabeth as Supreme
1566 Head of the Church, they separated from that body in A.D. a few years. From their desire to establish a purer form of worship, they received the name of **Puritans,**[1] They objected to the surplice; to the sign of the cross in baptism; to the use of the Liturgy; to the adornment of churches with pictures, statues, or stained windows; and to the government of the Church by bishops.

2. The **Act of Supremacy** and the **Act of Uniformity,** which were passed soon after Elizabeth came to the
1559 throne, were the chief causes of the Puritan secession. A.D. The one required all clergymen and those holding office under Government to take an oath, ascribing to Elizabeth all power in both Church and State in England, and deny-

[1] *Puritans.*—They were called "the Separation," and "Dissenters," when they began to form separate congregations.

ing the right of any foreign power to meddle with English affairs. This law was levelled directly at the Pope, who still claimed jurisdiction in England. The other statute forbade under heavy penalties all worship except by the use of King Edward's Prayer Book. Many Catholics suffered death by these laws; and the Puritans, who also refused to be bound by them, were fined and imprisoned in great numbers during the rest of the reign. Hence the successors of the Puritans are called *Nonconformists* in more recent times.

3. To carry out these Acts, a **Court of High Commission** had been instituted soon after they were passed. In 1583 this court received new powers, which were intended to make the law more effectual than previously against Nonconformists. In that year John Whitgift became Primate, and till the end of the reign he contrived, through this court, to enforce the Acts of Supremacy and Uniformity with the utmost rigour and cruelty. His predecessor had been satisfied with condemning the practices and burning the books of the Puritans: he condemned the Puritans themselves, and sent the Independents to the galleys. In spite of persecution, however, Puritanism continued to thrive, and ere long became a distinct power in the country and in Parliament.

4. Two important continental events of this time, connected with the Reformation, had a special interest for England. The one was the **massacre of St. Bartholomew** in France (1572); the other was the **rise of the Dutch Republic** under William of Orange (1576). The massacres in France and the cruelties of Alva in the Netherlands drove hundreds of work-people to settle in Britain. Those from France were skilled in silk-weaving; those from Flanders were chiefly dyers and dressers of woollen cloth; and a marked improvement in these two branches of our manufactures may thus be traced to those events.

5. The alliance of Elizabeth contributed much to the triumph of William of Orange. She refused the sovereignty of the Netherlands offered to her by the revolted provinces in 1575. But, three years later, she sent them help, in men, money, and ships. The assassination of the Prince of Orange in 1584 was followed by the conquest of the southern provinces by the Span-

ish Governor, Alexander Farnese, Duke of Parma. Once more the provinces appealed to Elizabeth for help. She sent over an army under her favourite the Earl of Leicester (1586). With Leicester went his nephew, the famous Sir Philip Sidney.[1] In a skirmish near Zutphen,[2] which the English army was besieging, Sidney was mortally wounded, and he died a few days afterwards.

6. The friends of Mary Stewart still hoped, with the aid of Spain, to accomplish her elevation to the throne; and Elizabeth, knowing this, was kept in constant anxiety. The discovery in 1586 of a plot to assassinate the Queen and give Mary the crown brought matters to a crisis. The chief conspirator was **Antony Babington**, a gentleman of Derbyshire. Letters, it was said, were conveyed to the Scottish Queen through a chink in the wall of her prison by a brewer who brought ale to the household. These, with her replies, fell by treachery into the hands of Francis Walsingham, Secretary of State. Fourteen conspirators were arrested and executed; and it was resolved to try Mary for her share in the plot.

1586 A.D.

7. In **Fotheringay Castle,** Northamptonshire, the trial took place, before thirty-six royal commissioners. At first Mary refused to be tried, but afterwards consented, lest her refusal might seem to show conscious guilt. She was charged with having approved of the plot to assassinate Elizabeth. The chief evidence against her was that of her two secretaries, who had been seized by Elizabeth's order, and who swore, though not in Mary's presence, that she had received from Babington the letter of which a copy was produced at the trial; and that the answers, also produced in copies, had been written by themselves at her command.

8. In her defence Mary denied the charge, declaring that she was innocent of everything but a natural desire to regain her freedom. She had no advocate to plead for her: she stood alone before her accusers. Clearly and readily she replied to

---

[1] *Sidney.*—It is said that as he lay on the field, faint from the loss of blood, he had a cup of cold water handed to him; but that, noticing a wounded soldier near him, he passed it to him, saying, "Thy necessity is yet greater than mine" The story, however rests on doubtful authority.

[2] *Zutphen.*— Fifty miles east of Amsterdam: 20 miles from Arnhem.

every question, and demanded to be confronted with the witnesses. This was refused, and soon after she was doomed to die.

9. The warrant for her execution was delayed by the reluctance—pretended or real—of Elizabeth. Meanwhile Henry III. of France pleaded hard for the condemned Queen. James VI. of Scotland, too, made a feeble effort to save his mother. At last, however, Elizabeth signed the warrant, and sent Davison her secretary with it to the Chancellor, that it might receive the Great Seal. Recalling this order next day, she found that she was too late. The seal had been affixed, and the warrant was on the way to Fotheringay. There, in one of the castle halls, **Mary Stewart**, aged forty-five, was beheaded, in the gray light of a February morning. **1587** A.D.

10. Some time before her death, Mary had transferred her interest in the English succession from her son, who was a Protestant, to Philip II. of Spain, who had made himself the champion of the old faith in Europe. Philip now resolved on the conquest of England. His great object was the destruction of Protestantism; but, besides, he was smarting under the loss of many treasure-ships; and it is said that his vanity was wounded by Elizabeth's refusal to marry him. He prepared a great fleet, called the **Invincible Armada.** It consisted of 132 large ships, having on board, besides their crews, nearly 20,000 soldiers and 2,630 cannons of brass. After several false starts, it sailed from Lisbon, on May 29, 1588, under command of the Duke of Medina Sidonia. At the same time the Duke of Parma, the greatest soldier of the age, moved to the coast of Flanders near Dunkirk, ready with 40,000 men to second the invasion. **1588** A.D.

11. The Royal Navy of England then consisted of only 36 sail, and these were of small size. But nobles, merchants, citizens came with their money to the Queen, and equipped vessels at their own expense. At once the ecclesiastical origin of the quarrel was forgotten. English Roman Catholics united cordially with English Protestants in preparing to defend their shores. A fleet of 191 ships soon rode on the English waters; and, though the vessels were small, the best seamen and the bravest hearts in England were on board. Lord Howard of Effingham, himself a Roman Catholic, was the admiral; and

under him served Drake, Hawkins, and Frobisher. The English army, consisting of 130,000 men without the London levies, was divided into three parts: one guarded the southern coast, another was stationed at Tilbury to defend the capital, while the third was reserved to oppose the landing.

12. Storms delayed the Armada, but at length the English admiral stationed at Plymouth received news of its approach, and, on putting to sea, saw it stretching in a crescent form seven miles across! Keeping at a distance, lest the Spaniards should board his vessels, he poured in his shot with great effect. The Spaniards replied with heavy guns; but from the height of their decks their shot passed clean over the English ships. Slowly the Armada bore up the Channel towards Calais, the English fleet following. Off Calais it anchored, waiting for the Duke of Parma, who lay cooped up in Flanders, watched keenly by the Dutch.

13. On the second night thereafter, the English admiral caused eight **fire-ships** to be silently towed towards the Spanish fleet in the darkness, and to be ignited when they approached the enemy. A panic seized the Spaniards when they saw the dark hulks burst into flames. They at once cut their cables, and drifted into damaging confusion. Effingham was not the man to lose his opportunity. He fell at once on the disordered fleet, and destroyed twelve ships. The great Armada was now in full flight. It could not return by the Strait of Dover, for the wind was against it, and the English ships lay in the adjacent harbours. The only way by which the Armada could reach the Atlantic was round the north of Scotland. The storms it encountered on the wild northern coasts completed its ruin. The Orkneys, the Hebrides, the shores of Antrim, Mayo, and Kerry were strewn with the wrecks of the ill-fated vessels. Only fifty-three shattered hulks returned to Spain.

14. During forty years of her reign Elizabeth was guided by the advice of **Lord Burleigh**, a wise and cool-tempered statesman. He rose to be Lord Treasurer, and by his policy greatly increased the revenue of the kingdom. On his death in 1598, he was succeeded by Thomas Sackville, Lord Buckhurst, afterwards Earl of Dorset. The chief favourite of the Queen's

middle life was the Earl of Leicester, in whose breast her evident fondness kindled the ambitious hope that she meant to marry him.

15. The favourite of her old age was Robert Devereux, **Earl of Essex.** In 1596 he led the English soldiers to the capture of Cadiz; and on that occasion, as on others, his dash and courage were the main causes of success. The Queen was very fond of him, and forgave him much. Once, conversing with her about the choice of a governor for Ireland, he turned his back on her with scorn. She promptly gave him a box on the ear; and then, forgetting where he stood, he laid his hand on his sword and declared that he would not have taken such usage even from her father.

16. In spite of such displays of temper, Essex was appointed in 1598 to command the English forces in Ireland, where **Hugh O'Neill**, Earl of Tyrone, was in rebellion. At the very moment when Tyrone was reduced to extremities, Essex imprudently entered into a correspondence with the rebel chief, which drew on himself suspicion of treason. Hearing of the Queen's displeasure on this account, he returned to England without her leave, was disgraced, and imprisoned. But the fondness of Elizabeth soon gave him liberty again; and then with the Earl of Southampton he strove to raise the Londoners in revolt. For this he was tried and condemned to death. It is said that he might even then have been pardoned, if the Queen had received a ring which she had given to him in some moment of tenderness, to be sent to her when any danger hung over him. It never reached her, and she allowed him **1601** to go to the block. He was beheaded in the Tower, A.D. aged thirty-four.

17. Some two years later, the Queen was entreated to visit the **Countess of Nottingham,**[1] who was dying. This lady confessed that Essex had intrusted the ring to her to be carried to Elizabeth; but that she, influenced by her husband, a bitter enemy of the Earl, had not delivered it. Rage and grief seized

[1] *Countess of Nottingham.*—Wife of Howard, Lord Effingham, who had been created Earl of Nottingham after the capture of Cadiz in 1596. As Essex claimed the credit of that exploit for himself alone, he was deeply hurt; and he and Nottingham were foes ever afterwards.

the Queen; and it is said that she shook the dying Countess in her bed. Never happy since the death of Essex, she sank under this blow. Ten days and nights she lay on cushions on the floor, taking neither food nor medicine; and then, falling into a heavy sleep, she died. She was in her seventieth year.

1603 A.D.

18. During all these years the High Commission Court, assuming inquisitorial powers, proceeded steadily with the work of enforcing uniformity. There was no true liberty in the country, either civil or religious. Elizabeth, like all the Tudor Sovereigns, treated **the House of Commons** very haughtily. She not only reproved members who opposed her will, but even at times committed them to prison. The Commons, at the same time, were careful to assert their privileges when a favourable opportunity arose, as if to lay the foundation of the cause which they were to defend in the subsequent reigns. Thus, in 1601, they opposed, with unusual firmness, the **monopolies**,[1] which she had been granting during her whole reign. When the Queen saw their temper, she had the good sense to yield, and some of the monopolies complained of (though not all) were abolished. Elizabeth, however, maintained the reality of her prerogative. In a single session (that of 1597) she refused the royal assent to no fewer than forty-eight Bills which the Commons had passed.

QUESTIONS. — 1. What complicated ecclesiastical affairs in the time of Elizabeth? Who separated from the Church of England? What name did they receive? Why?

2. What Acts were the chief causes of the Puritan secession? What did the Act of Supremacy require? At whom was it levelled? What did the Act of Uniformity forbid? Who suffered by these laws? What name have the successors of the Puritans received?

3. What court was instituted to carry out these Acts? When did that court receive new powers? Who then became primate? How did he enforce the Acts? What effect had persecution on Puritanism?

4. What two continental events of this time had a special interest for England? What effect had the massacres in France and the cruelties in the Netherlands on England?

5. What offer did the Dutch make to Elizabeth in 1575? Did she accept? What did she do three years later? When did the provinces again appeal to her for help? Whom did she send

[1] *Monopolies.*—The complaint of the Commons was, that the sole right of trading in indispensable articles, such as salt, coal, paper, &c., was in the hands of patentees, who were at liberty to charge for them the most exorbitant prices. The Sovereign used the distribution of monopolies as a means of rewarding favourites and of bribing supporters.

over with an army? Who was slain near Zutphen?

6. Of what were the friends of Mary Stewart still hopeful? What brought matters to a crisis? Who was the chief conspirator? What was Mary's connection with it? How was the plot discovered? How many conspirators were executed? Whose trial was resolved on?

7. Where did Mary's trial take place? Before whom? Why did she consent to be tried? What was the chief evidence against her?

8. What was Mary's defence? What was her sentence?

9. What delayed the execution? Who interposed on Mary's behalf? What further proof of vacillation did Elizabeth give? When was Mary executed?

10. To whom had Mary transferred her interest in the English succession? On what did Philip now resolve? What were his motives? What was the fleet which he prepared called? Mention the number of ships, of soldiers, and of cannons. Who commanded the Armada? When did it sail? What army was to second the invasion?

11. What was the extent of the English Navy of that time? How was it increased? What was forgotten regarding the origin of the struggle? How was this shown? Who was the admiral? Who served under him? What was the strength of the English army? How was it divided?

12. Where was the approach of the Armada announced? What plan of fighting did the English adopt? Where did the Armada anchor? Why?

13. How was the Armada attacked on the second night thereafter? What did Effingham then do? What completed the ruin of the Armada? How many vessels returned to Spain?

14. How long was Lord Burleigh Elizabeth's minister? Who succeeded him? Who was Elizabeth's favourite in middle life?

15. Who was the favourite of her old age? Where was his valour conspicuous? What anecdote shows the terms on which he was with the Queen?

16. To what command was Essex appointed in 1598? What rebellion was then in progress? Of what indiscretion was he guilty? Why was he imprisoned? On what charge was he condemned? How might he have been saved?

17. Who had intercepted the ring? Why? When did she confess it? What effect had the discovery on the Queen?

18. What had been going on during all these years? How did Elizabeth treat the Commons? On what occasion did they oppose her firmly? What did she do? What shows the reality of the royal prerogative in her reign?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. **1572.**—The marriage of the head of the Protestants, Henry of Navarre, with Margaret of Valois, was made the occasion of an attack on the Huguenots, in which 80,000 of them were massacred on **St. Bartholomew's Day**, and following days. Admiral Coligny, the Protestant leader, was the first to fall. Henry of Navarre was spared, but remained in custody for some years afterwards.

2. **1576.**—The Huguenot power having revived, the **Holy League** was formed to oppose the French Protestants, and to place the Duke of Guise on the throne. The War of the Three Henries ensued:—Henry III., who had succeeded his brother Charles in 1574; Henry, Duke of Guise; and Henry of Navarre. Henry III. (the last of the House of Valois) was murdered in 1589, and was succeeded by Henry

of Navarre (the first of the House of Bourbon), who overthrew the League at the Battle of Ivry in 1590.

3. **1580.**—Philip II. of Spain subdued **Portugal**, which continued subject to Spain for sixty years. Sebastian III. of Portugal had attacked the Moors in Africa in 1578, but was slain. He was succeeded by his uncle, Cardinal Henry. Philip is supposed to have encouraged the Moorish expedition in order to create a vacancy in the succession.

4. **1582.**—Pope Gregory XIII. corrected the **calendar** by appointing every fourth year to be a leap year (of three hundred and sixty-six days) except once a century. The errors which had accumulated during the preceding centuries were corrected by dropping eleven days out of the reckoning. This "new style," as it was called, has been adopted in every country of Europe except Russia.

5. **1584.**—Geneva allied itself with the Swiss cantons. The Republic of Geneva was established in 1512, independent of the Empire. The Duke of Savoy, whose dominions surrounded it, attempted to seize it in 1534, with the view of crushing Calvinism, of which it was the headquarters. With the aid of the Bernese the Savoyards were driven off, and lost a great part of their possessions on both sides of the Lake of Geneva.

6. **1598.**—Henry IV. of France granted toleration to his Protestant subjects by the **Edict of Nantes.** Before his accession he was the champion of Protestantism; but, to conciliate the Roman Catholics, he had joined their Church. This alarmed the Protestants, to pacify whom the Edict was issued. He was murdered by Ravaillac in 1610.

7. **1598.**—The royal line of Ruric (see 862) came to an end in Russia. Usurpers and impostors held the throne till 1613, when the reigning House of **Romanoff** began with Michael, a descendant of Ivan, the first Czar (1462).

QUESTIONS.—1. What was made the occasion of the massacre of St. Bartholomew's Day? How many perished? The date?—2. Why was the Holy League formed? What war ensued? Where was the League overthrown?—3. By whom was Portugal subdued in 1580? How long did it continue subject to Spain?—4. What made the correction of the calendar necessary? When was it effected? How? What country of Europe still adheres to the old style?—5. What was the peculiar position of Geneva at the beginning of the sixteenth century? What change took place in 1584?—6. When was the Edict of Nantes issued? Why? How did Henry IV. die?—7. What royal line came to an end in Russia in 1598? When did the House of Romanoff begin?

CHAPTER X.

SOCIAL CONDITION—SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

1. Crime—Pauperism—Money.
2. Houses—Exterior.
3. Interior.
4. Furniture—Coaches.
5. Food.
6. Style of Living.
7. Dress.
8. Description of Queen Elizabeth.
9. Men's Dress.
10. Sports.
11. Horse-racing, and Bear-baiting.
12. Ladies' Sports.
13. In-door Games.
14. Dancing and Music.
15. Christmas-tide.
16. May-Day.
17. Witchcraft.
18. Astrology.
19. Alchemy.
20. Navigation—Geography—Commerce.
21. The Shipping Trade.
22. The Revival of Learning.
23. Grammar Schools.
24. The Elizabethan Literature.
25. Leading Authors of the Period.

1. Before the sixteenth century, **crime** was fearfully common. Even in the reign of Henry VIII. about two thousand persons were hanged every year for robbery alone. In the days of Elizabeth the number was reduced to three or four hundred a year. This remarkable change was, without doubt, owing to the diffusion of education and religion among all classes. In the fifth year of Elizabeth the first law to relieve the poor was passed. The population was then under five million; and the Queen's revenue cannot have exceeded £500,000 a year. The highest legal interest was 10 per cent. Most of the silver coins now current were in use, crowns, half-crowns, and sixpences having been issued by Edward VI.

2. The Tudor style of **architecture** was also called "Florid," from its profusion of ornament. Henry the Seventh's Chapel at Westminster is a good example of it. Brick and stone were generally used in the houses of the upper classes, and glass windows became common. The poor lived in hovels made of wattles plastered over with clay. The fire was in the middle of the floor, and the smoke escaped through a hole in the blackened roof. This was the case in all houses until the reign of Henry VII., when chimneys began to be built.

3. Erasmus, a famous Dutch scholar who became Professor of Greek at Cambridge in the time of Henry VIII., gives no pleasant description of the floors of the poorer houses. He says: "The floors are commonly of clay, strewed with rushes; under which lies unmolested an ancient collection of beer, grease,

fragments, bones, spittle, and everything that is nasty." To these uncleanly habits were owing the terrible plagues that fell on the people. In Elizabeth's time the majority of the houses were built of oak.

4. Then, too, many changes were made in **furniture.** Bedding was much improved. In early Tudor reigns, a straw pallet, a coarse sheet and rug, and a log of wood for a bolster, were commonly used. The man who slept on a pillow of chaff was thought luxurious. Servants lay on bare straw. Before Elizabeth reigned, all dishes and spoons were wooden, or, as they were called, "treen."[1] But then pewter platters and silver or tin spoons came into use among farmers and people of the same class. The pewter dishes were at first flat, but were afterwards made deeper and more like basins. About the year 1580 coaches were introduced: before that time ladies rode on a pillion behind their chief servants, whom they held by the belt.

5. Hops were now first grown in England. Cabbages, cherries, gooseberries, plums, apricots, and grapes might be seen in English gardens. Wheaten bread was eaten more generally, rye and barley being the food only of the poor. Potatoes were brought by Sir Francis Drake from Santa Fé in America, and were first planted in Lancashire. They were introduced into Ireland by Sir Walter Ralegh. Ralegh also brought tobacco from the West India island Tobago, and taught the English its use. Beef and mutton sold in the time of Henry VIII. for a halfpenny per pound; veal and pork for three farthings. But fresh meat was not eaten even by gentlemen, except from Midsummer to Michaelmas.

6. The families of the nobles and gentry still dined in the great hall with all the servants. Half way down the table stood a large salt-cellar of silver or pewter. Above this sat the master, his family, and guests; below it were retainers and servants of all degrees; hence the expression, to sit above, or below, the salt. The nobles kept up princely style. The Earl of Leicester, who owned Kenilworth Castle, kept arms there for 10,000 men. There in 1576 he entertained Elizabeth for seventeen days with the most splendid feasts and shows.[2] Lord

[1] *Treen.*—That is, *tree-en*, made of tree; as *wood-en* means made of wood.

[2] This is grandly described in Sir Walter Scott's romance, *Kenilworth.*

Burleigh, though a self-made noble, had, besides numerous under-servants, a train of twenty gentlemen, each worth £1,000 a year.

7. The country folks wore a doublet of russet-brown leather. But the Court fashions were, like those of our own day, always changing. The courtiers of Henry VIII. stuffed their clothes as the King grew fat, in order that they might resemble him in figure. Queen Catherine Howard introduced pins from France; and as these were expensive at first, a separate sum for this luxury was granted to the ladies by their husbands: hence the expression "pin-money." The **farthingale** was introduced from Spain in Mary's reign: it was a large hooped petticoat. Ruffs of plaited linen were worn by both sexes on the neck and wrists. These were at first held out by pieces of wood or ivory; but in Elizabeth's time they were stiffened with yellow starch. Cloth hose were worn by all, until in the third year of her reign Elizabeth received a pair of black silk stockings. Thereafter she wore no other kind. Three thousand dresses were found in the wardrobe of this Queen after her death!

8. In the travels of Hentzner, a German, **Elizabeth** is thus described: "Next came the Queen, in the sixty-fifth year of her age,—very majestic; her face oblong, fair, but wrinkled. She had in her ears two pearls with drops; she wore false hair, and that red; and on her head she had a small crown. She was dressed in white silk, bordered with pearls the size of beans; and over it a mantle of black silk, shot with silver thread. Her train was very long, and the end of it was borne by a marchioness."

9. The **gentlemen** wore their hair either short and curled or set up on end. Their beards were long and pointed. The costume of the yeomen of the Queen's guard, commonly called "beef-eaters" (a corruption of *buffetiers*[1]), gives a very good idea of the dress worn by men in the Tudor period. The growth of flax and hemp, and the invention of cotton thread, supplied materials for stocking-weaving and the making of sail-cloth. Rugs, frieze, and baize began to be manufactured largely, and

[1] *Buffetiers.*—Attendants at a *buffet*, or side-board.

were much improved by the skill of the cloth-dressers, who fled from the persecutions on the Continent.

10. The **Tournament** had now degenerated into a mere sport, for the strength of armies consisted no longer in steel-clad knights. The boat-joust, or tilting on the water, was practised in summer on the Thames and other rivers. Boards were placed across the boats, on which stood men armed with wooden spears and shields; and each, as the boats were rowed swiftly against one another, strove to knock his opponent overboard. Hunting, especially the stag-hunt, has been at all times one of our national sports. During this period the ladies often joined the chase, and shot at the game with arrows. Elizabeth, even in her old age, frequently enjoyed such sports. Hawking, though still practised, was now beginning to decline, for the gun was coming into use.

11. There were horse-races for prizes; but the modern system of gambling bets was unknown. Bear-baiting and bull-baiting were favourite sports of the highest in the land. Queen Mary, visiting her sister at Hatfield House, was entertained with a grand bear-baiting. Elizabeth, receiving the Danish ambassador at Greenwich, treated him to a similar sight. The animal was fastened in the middle of an open space, and worried by great English bull-dogs; and, as the dogs were killed or disabled, fresh ones were supplied. The cruel sport of whipping a blinded bear often followed.

12. Even the ladies enjoyed these sports exceedingly; and we cannot, therefore, wonder that the language of the period was very indelicate and coarse. To make the matter worse, the Sunday afternoon was, until the later years of Elizabeth, the favourite time for these amusements. The principal country sports were archery, foot-races, and various games of ball. Among the last-named were *tennis*, *club-ball* (the origin of cricket), and *pall-mall* (the origin of croquet), in which a box-wood ball was struck with a mallet through an iron arch.

13. Within doors the chief game was *shovel-board*. It was played on a smooth table with flat metal weights. A line was drawn across the table four inches from the edge, and the skill of the play consisted in shoving the weights so as to cross this line without falling over the edge of the table. Other games

were backgammon, then called *tables;* dice, ruinous in every age; chess, supposed to have been brought from Asia, and to have been known in this country one hundred years before the Conquest; and cards, invented to relieve the mind of Charles VI., a mad King of France.

14. Dancing and music filled up many hours; but the dance always ceased with nightfall. Although the minstrels and joculators (jugglers) of the Norman days were despised in the Tudor period, music was much cultivated in private life. The fashionable instruments of music were the *cittern* or lute, a kind of guitar; and the *virginals*, a keyed instrument of one string, the original of the harpsichord and the modern piano.

15. **Christmas** was the great season of sports. There was then a general license, and all sorts of wild tricks were played. Every one went a-mumming in strange dresses and masks. Those who could not get masks, rubbed soot on their faces. In each parish a Lord of Misrule was chosen, who, with a troop of idle fellows in green and yellow dresses covered with ribbons, went about shouting, and playing drums, sometimes entering the churches even during Divine service! These mummers wore masks representing the heads of goats, stags, and bulls, and often dressed themselves in skins to resemble savages.

16. **May-day** was another festive season in old England. Green branches were pulled immediately after midnight; a Lord and Lady of May were chosen; and dances were kept up around a May-pole crowned with flowers. Connected with these sports was the Morris-dance,—supposed to have been derived from the Moors of Spain. The principal dancer, or foreman of the Morris, was richly dressed; and all had bells attached to their skirts, arms, and knees. Some assumed characters, such as Robin Hood and Maid Marian; and a hobby-horse was always in the band. This was a light wooden frame, representing the head and body of a horse, with trappings that reached the ground and concealed the legs of a man, who pranced about in imitation of a horse.

17. Three forms of **superstition** influenced the minds of the people to a great degree during this period. These were Witchcraft, Astrology, and Alchemy. According to the ignorant, all discoveries in science, all inventions in art, were the work of the

Evil One. Hence Roger Bacon in England and Faust in Germany were believed to have sold themselves to Satan. But poor feeble old women were the most frequent victims of the absurd belief in **Witchcraft;** and they perished by hundreds. The older and weaker and more withered the object of suspicion, the stronger was the belief that she was a witch. All mischief was ascribed to them. If a child turned sick and died, some witch had done it: if a storm arose, the trembling peasants thought they heard the screaming of the witches, who were riding on broomsticks through the midnight skies. This belief kept its hold of the popular mind up to the present century, and is not even yet extinct in some remote country districts.

18. The **astrologers,** whose art was more than four thousand years old, pretended that they could foretell events by the position of the stars. They were consulted by even the highest and the wisest; and were, therefore, honoured and rich. Many of our common words, such as "disaster," "ill-starred," had, as their derivation shows, at first a purely astrological meaning.

19. Kindred with Astrology was **Alchemy,** an art which had for its object the discovery of the *philosopher's stone* and the *elixir of life.* The former was an imaginary substance, which could change all baser metals into gold; the latter, a liquid which would confer on the person drinking it everlasting life and beauty. In this vain pursuit the time, the health, and the fortune of thousands were wasted, without profit to them. But not without profit to us. Witchcraft has given place to that knowledge of drugs and plants so useful in medicine and the arts; while the falsehoods of Astrology and Alchemy have been superseded by the truths of Astronomy and Chemistry.

20. Navigation, geography, and commerce advanced together with rapid strides. Henry VII. laid the foundation of our navy, and, therefore, of our world-wide commerce. English ships were soon ploughing every sea. In Mary's reign the way to Archangel was discovered, and our Russian trade began. It was, however, in the days of Elizabeth that England became a great naval power, and that commerce received its strongest impulse. Spain, Holland, and Portugal had led the way into unknown seas, and England was not slow to follow their example. Sir John Hawkins traced the coast of Guinea. Sir

Martin Frobisher repeatedly visited the Arctic Ocean. Sir Francis Drake, doubling Cape Horn, crossed the Pacific to the shores of India, and sailed home round the Cape of Good Hope, thus being the first English commander to sail round the world. Sir Walter Ralegh colonized part of the American coast, and called the settlement Virginia in honour of Queen Elizabeth.

21. The shipping trade was also increased. Wool, lead, and tin had long been exported to the Continent, but in vessels from the Hanse Towns. Elizabeth built large vessels for this trade, and encouraged the English merchants to improve their ships. By granting a charter to the East India Company in 1600, she laid the foundation of our Indian Empire.

22. A remarkable feature of the period was the **revival of learning,** especially the study of classics. With the spread of the Bible was diffused a desire to know those languages—Hebrew, Greek, and Latin—on which its true interpretation depends. They have ever since held a leading place in school and college education. Erasmus, already referred to, did much for the advancement of classical study at Oxford. Henry VIII., Edward VI., Jane Grey, and Mary were all good classical scholars; and Elizabeth, even after she became Queen, read, as her tutor, old Roger Ascham, said, "more Greek in a day than a clergyman read of Latin in a week."

23. The system of **Secondary Education** had its origin in this period. Dean Colet founded St. Paul's School in order to indoctrinate the middle classes with the "new learning." Christ's Hospital, commonly called the Blue-coat School, was founded by Edward VI., in whose reign also eighteen Grammar Schools were founded in the leading towns, as Birmingham and Shrewsbury. Westminster School was founded by Elizabeth in 1560. In the same reign Rugby School was founded by Sheriffe, and Harrow by John Lyon.

24. The **Elizabethan age** forms one of the most brilliant periods in the history of English literature. Then Edmund Spenser wrote the *Faerie Queene;* then flourished Philip Sidney, author of *Arcadia;* then were written the plays of William Shakespeare; then the early studies of Francis Bacon laid the foundation of the modern philosophy; and Richard Hooker,

in his *Ecclesiastical Polity*, wrote English prose with a dignity and eloquence which it had never worn before.

---

25. LEADING AUTHORS OF THE PERIOD.

SIR THOMAS MORE, (1480-1535)—prose writer—Lord Chancellor—chief works, *Utopia*, a fanciful scheme of perfect government. written first in Latin; and the *Life and Reign of Edward V.*—beheaded by Henry VIII.

WILLIAM TYNDALE, (1477-1536)—studied at Oxford—translated *The New Testament* (1526)—strangled and burned near Antwerp in 1536.

HENRY HOWARD, Earl of Surrey—(1516-1547)—poet—refiner of English verse—introduced the *Sonnet* from Italy—wrote the first English blank-verse in some translations from *Virgil's Æneid*—beheaded by Henry VIII.

THOMAS CRANMER, (1489-1556)—Archbishop of Canterbury—editor of *The Book of Common Prayer*, a book of *Twelve Homilies*, and *The Great Bible* (1540)—burned at Oxford in 1556.

JOHN FOXE, (1517-1587)—born at Boston—author of *The Book of Martyrs*—prebend of Salisbury under Elizabeth.

THOMAS SACKVILLE, (1536-1608)—Lord Buckhurst—joint-author of *Gorboduc*, the earliest English tragedy—author of the best portions of *A Mirror for Magistrates* (1559).

SIR PHILIP SIDNEY, (1554-1586)—wrote a prose romance called *Arcadia;* also *A Defence of Poesie*—killed in a skirmish near Zutphen in the Netherlands.

EDMUND SPENSER, (1552-1599)—second great English poet—born in London—lived at Kilcolman, county of Cork—chief work, *The Faerie Queene*, an allegorical poem, written in a stanza of nine lines, called "the Spenserian"—died at Westminster.

RICHARD HOOKER, (1553-1600)—rector of Boscomb in Wilts—author of *The Ecclesiastical Polity of a Nation.*

CHRISTOPHER MARLOWE, (1563-1593)—established blank-verse in plays—author of *Tamburlaine, Faustus, Jew of Malta, Edward II.*—killed in a tavern scuffle.

WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE, (1564-1616)—the prince of dramatists—born and died at Stratford-on-Avon—an actor—lived chiefly in London—wrote thirty-seven Plays between 1591 and 1614—wrote also Sonnets and other poems.

SIR WALTER RALEGH, (1552-1618)—wrote verses in earlier years—colonized Virginia—spent more than fourteen years in prison in the Tower—occupied himself in writing a *History of the World*, which comes down to about 168 B.C.—beheaded for treason.

FRANCIS BACON, (1561–1626)—Lord Chancellor and Viscount St. Albans—author of *Essays* (English); first published in 1597—chief scientific work, written in Latin, *Instauratio Magna*, of which the finest portion is *Novum Organum* (1620)—tried and degraded for taking bribes (1621).

SCOTTISH WRITERS.

ROBERT HENRYSON, (died before 1508)—schoolmaster at Dunfermline—author of *Testament of Fair Creseide*, &c.

WILLIAM DUNBAR, (died about 1520)—a Franciscan friar—author of *The Dance of the Seven Deadly Sins, The Golden Terge, The Thistle and The Rose*, &c.

GAVIN (GAWAIN) DOUGLAS,—poet—Bishop of Dunkeld—flourished about 1500—wrote *Palace of Honour*—first translator of *Virgil's Æneid* into English verse.

About 1500 A.D. three great painters flourished in Italy,—Leonardo da Vinci, Raphael, and Titian. Albert Dürer lived about the same time at Nuremberg. There were no English artists of note. Most of the portraits of the Tudors are from the pencil of Hans Holbein, a German artist.

QUESTIONS. — 1. In the reign of Henry VIII. what was the average number of persons annually hanged for robbery? To what was the number reduced in the reign of Elizabeth? To what was this change owing? When was the first law to relieve the poor passed? What was then the population of England? What was the Queen's revenue? What was the highest legal interest? In whose reign were crowns, half-crowns, and sixpences first issued?

2. Why was the Tudor style of architecture also called "Florid"? What building is a good example of this style? What improvements were made in domestic architecture during this period? Describe the dwellings of the poor. When did chimneys begin to be built?

3. Who was Erasmus? Quote a description by him of the floors of the poorer houses. What was the effect of these uncleanly habits? Of what material chiefly were houses built in Elizabeth's time?

4. What changes were made in furniture? What vehicles first came into use about the year 1580? How had ladies been accustomed before that date to travel?

5. During the Tudor period what improvements were made in farming and gardening? What vegetables and fruits were introduced? Whence were potatoes brought? By whom? In what English county were they first planted? By whom were they introduced into Ireland? What other plant was introduced by him? At what price were beef, mutton, veal, and pork sold during the reign of Henry VIII.? At what season of the year was fresh meat eaten?

6. What social custom still survived? By what were masters and servants divided at table? In what style did the noblemen live? Give two examples.

7. What was the dress of country people at this time? What absurd fashion was occasioned by the corpulence of Henry VIII.? Whence did the expression "pin-money" arise? What was the farthingale? Whence and when was it introduced? What do you know of the ruffs worn at this period? What change did Queen Eliza-

beth make in her costume from the third year of her reign? How many dresses were found in her wardrobe at the time of her death?

8. What description of this Queen is given by Hentzner?

9. How did the gentlemen of this period wear their hair? What kind of beards were in fashion? What invention supplied materials for stocking-weaving and the making of sail-cloth? How were the woollen manufactures improved?

10. What is said of the tournament during this period? What was the boat-joust? What of hunting and hawking?

11. What of the horse-races of the period? What of bear-baiting and bull-baiting?

12. On what occasions were these amusements indulged in? What were the principal country sports? What game was the original form of cricket? What was the original of croquet?

13. Within doors what was the chief game? How was it played? What other games were practised?

14. At what time did the dancing parties cease? What were the fashionable musical instruments?

15. What was the great season of sports? Describe the festivities and masquerades of the season. Who led the sports? What did the "mummers" wear?

16. Describe the festivities observed on May-day. What was the Morris-dance, and whence probably derived? How were the dancers dressed? What was the hobby-horse?

17. What three forms of superstition influenced the minds of the people during this period? What fatal consequences resulted from the popular belief in Witchcraft?

18. What did the Astrologers profess? Who consulted them? What words are due to the art?

19. What were the objects of Alchemy? To what have these phases of superstition given place?

20. Which of our Kings is stated to have laid the foundation of our navy and commerce? When did our Russian trade begin? When did our early commerce receive its strongest impulse? What were the discoveries of Hawkins, Frobisher, and Drake respectively? Who founded the settlement of Virginia? Whence the name?

21. How was the shipping trade improved? When was the charter of the East India Company granted?

22. How did the spread of the Bible encourage learning? What were the literary attainments of the Tudor monarchs? What remark did Ascham make concerning Elizabeth?

23. What part of our educational system had its origin in this period? Who founded St. Paul's School? With what view? By whom was Christ's Hospital founded? How many Grammar Schools were founded in his reign? Mention examples of these. What public schools were founded in Elizabeth's reign?

24. What is the literary character of the Elizabethan age? Name some of the chief writers, and say for what each is remarkable.

25. Who wrote the *Life of Edward V.?* the *Book of Martyrs? Arcadia?* the *Ecclesiastical Polity?* the *Jew of Malta? Novum Organum?* the *Dance of the Seven Sins?* Name, with dates, the chief works of Tyndale, Sackville, Spenser, Raleigh, and Gavin Douglas. Who painted the Tudor monarchs? Who were the three great Italian painters about 1500?

HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

BOOK III.

ABSOLUTE MONARCHY.

(*Continued.*)

CHAPTER XI.

THE UNION OF THE CROWNS.

1. Accession of James Stewart.
2. Three Great Parties.
3. The Main and the Bye Plot.
4. The Hampton Court Conference.
5. The Gunpowder Plot.
6. Its Discovery.
7. Its Consequences.
8. The Ulster Plantations.
9. The King's Favourites.
10. Effects of the Union in Scotland.

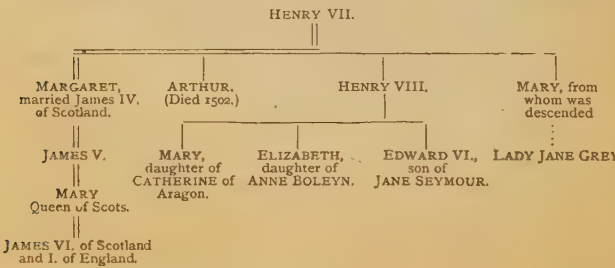
1. *JAMES I.*[1]—On a Saturday night in early spring, James, the King of Scots, had retired to rest in his palace of Holyrood, when a weary and travel-stained rider alighted at the gates. The stranger was immediately led to the King's bedside, where, kneeling humbly, he announced to him that Queen Elizabeth was dead, and saluted him as her successor. The rider was Sir Robert Carey, who had spurred from London to be the first to tell the great tidings. Three days later, James was proclaimed at the Cross of Edinburgh King of England, Scotland, and Ireland. One hundred years previously, Margaret Tudor had gone to Scotland to marry James IV. Now her great-grandson, as undisputed heir, quietly mounted Elizabeth's throne. On the Sunday following, James attended service in the High

[1] *James I.*—Son of Mary Queen of Scots, and great-great-grandson of Henry VII. Married Anne of Denmark. Reigned 22 years. First King of the House of Stewart. (See Part I., p. 197.) *See Table, next page.*

Church of Edinburgh. After sermon, he made a speech to the people, in which he declared that his love to his ancient kingdom could never change, and that he would revisit it every third year, to take account of the administration of justice and of the conduct of his servants and officers. The meanest in the land should have free access to him, to pour their complaints into the royal ear. Two days thereafter the King set out for London. His journey occupied a month, and resembled a triumphal procession all the way. The noblemen and gentlemen of every shire through which he passed convoyed him through their own lands. The jails on his route were thrown open, and the prisoners (traitors and murderers excepted) were set free. When he approached London, the Lord Mayor, the Aldermen, and five hundred citizens, all well mounted, and with chains of gold about their necks, met him at Stamford Hill. Thus hearty and brilliant was the welcome which the kindly English gave to their Scottish King. To gratify his new subjects, he created in six weeks more than two hundred knights.

2. The English nation was then divided into **three great parties**, the Episcopalians, the Roman Catholics, and the Puritans; and all three were nursing the hope of special favour from James. The Episcopalians trusted to his fondness for their form of church-government. The Roman Catholics thought that the son of Mary Stewart could not but cherish the creed of his mother. The Puritans clung to the hope that a King educated among Presbyterians would not dislike Puritanism. It soon appeared that James was resolved to establish Episcopacy

GENEALOGICAL TREE CONNECTING THE TUDORS AND THE STEWARTS.



throughout Great Britain, as the united kingdoms of England and Scotland began to be called.

3. The Roman Catholics and the Puritans had one feeling in common. Both had suffered severely from the Acts of Supremacy and Uniformity in the late reign, and both dreaded their continuance under James. The leaders of the two parties resolved on a combined effort to secure greater toleration. A double plot was formed. The one part, called the **Main,** aimed at placing Arabella Stewart,[1] the King's cousin, on the throne, with the help of Spain. The other part, called **1603** the **Bye,** had in view to surprise and imprison the King, A.D. and to remodel the Government. The plot was discovered, and three of the conspirators were executed. Sir Walter Ralegh, charged with being a leader of the Main plot, was thrown into the Tower, and remained there for thirteen years.

4. An attempt was made in the following year to settle the differences between the Episcopalians and the Puritans, by a conference of the leading men of both parties, held at **Hampton Court.**[2] It only served to bring out more strongly the King's liking for the Episcopal form of worship and government. James, vain of his theological learning, joined in the discussions, and met all the reasonings of the Puritan ministers with his favourite expression—*No bishop, no king.* The new translation of the English Bible was almost the only fruit of this conference. Forty-seven ministers were engaged in the work for three years, and it was published in 1611. It was printed in the Roman character, nearly all the previous versions having been in the type which is called Old English, though Caxton brought it from Germany The Address of the translators to King James I. may be read at the beginning of all the copies of this version, which is still the one in common use.

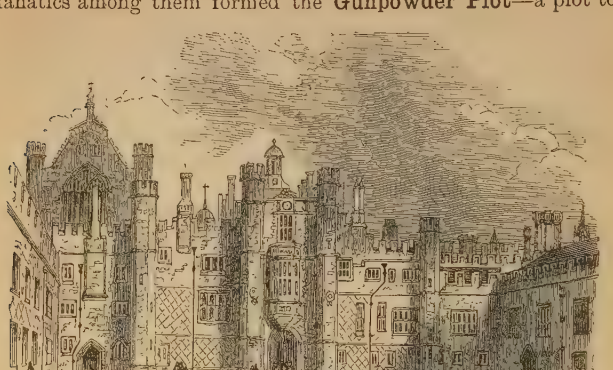
5. The discontent of some of the Roman Catholics, when they found that James had no intention of overthrowing the Prot-

---

[1] *Arabella Stewart.*—She was daughter of the Duke of Lennox, brother of Darnley, James's father.

[2] *Hampton Court.*—A palace near the village of Hampton on the Thames, 15 miles above London. It was built by Cardinal Wolsey, and presented by him to Henry VIII. in 1525. The famous gardens there were laid out by William III.

estant religion in England, took a terrible shape. Certain fanatics among them formed the **Gunpowder Plot**—a plot to



HAMPTON COURT PALACE.

blow up the King, Lords, and Commons, when assembled in Parliament. Robert Catesby and Sir Everard Digby were the chief conspirators. For eighteen months the preparations went on; and, although many were in the secret, no breath of it seems to have got abroad. A cellar beneath the House of Lords was hired; thirty-six barrels of gunpowder were placed there; coals and sticks were strewed over these; and the doors were then boldly thrown open. Still there was no detection.

6. Only a few days before the appointed time, Lord Mounteagle received an anonymous letter warning him not to attend the opening of Parliament. The mysterious words were:—"The Parliament shall receive a terrible blow, and shall not see who hurts them." The letter was laid before the Council, and the King was the first to guess that gunpowder was meant. On the vaults being searched the following morning, a Spanish officer, Guido or Guy Fawkes, was found preparing the matches. The rest of the conspirators fled into the country, where most of them were cut down while fighting desperately. Digby, Fawkes, and all who were taken alive, were

1605 A.D.

executed. The 5th of November 1605 was the day that had been fixed for the deed.

7. **Penal laws** of the severest kind were the result of this plot. No Roman Catholic was permitted to live in London; none could be a lawyer or a doctor. They were outlawed: at any time their houses might with impunity be broken into and their furniture destroyed.

8. James's policy in **Ireland** led to great changes. Taking almost all Ulster[1] from the insurgent chiefs, he parcelled it out among settlers from Great Britain, and those of the native race who were willing to submit to his rule. The present character of the north of Ireland may be traced to these Plantations, as they were called. To raise money for carrying out the scheme, the Baronetcy—an order of hereditary knighthood—was instituted, and the patents were sold for £1,000 each.

9. In 1612 James's eldest son, **Henry**, an amiable and accomplished prince, died, in his eighteenth year. His brother Charles then became Prince of Wales, and heir to the throne. **Robert Cecil**,[2] the Lord High Treasurer, died in the same year. He had been created Earl of Salisbury. After his death, James trusted much to **favourites**. The principal objects of his attachment were Cecil's successor, Robert Carr, afterwards Earl of Somerset; and George Villiers, the well-known Duke of Buckingham. Carr was a Scotsman, handsome but vicious. He was concerned in a murder, and the odium against him grew so strong that James was forced to dismiss him from the Court. Villiers was equally dissolute in his life, but had more prudence. To these even such men as Bacon, the Lord Chancellor, were known to cringe in hope of royal favour.

10. **In Scotland** the Union was attended by the most serious consequences. Most of the nobility and gentry followed the Court to London, and spent there the money drawn from their Scottish estates. Trade suffered immensely, and many Scotsmen went in search of wider fields of enterprise across the

[1] *Ulster.*—The northern province of Ireland. Ireland is divided into four provinces. The other three are Leinster (south-east), Connaught (west), and Munster (south). Each province is subdivided into counties. For the older divisions, see *Map*, Part I., p. 112.

[2] *Robert Cecil.*—He was the son of Lord Burleigh, Queen Elizabeth's favourite minister.

Border, or across the seas. Nevertheless, when James visited Scotland in 1617, for the only time after the Union, he
1617 was received with great joy. But the real purpose
A.D. of his visit was to push forward his scheme of Prelacy. The ceremonies and festivals of the Episcopal Church were forced on the General Assembly, and many nonconforming ministers were deposed.

QUESTIONS.—1. Where was James I. when he heard of Elizabeth's death? Who bore the tidings to him? What was his claim to the English throne? What promises did he make to the Scots? Describe his journey to London. Who went forth to welcome him?

2. Into what three parties was the English nation divided? What did each expect? What was James's intention regarding religion?

3. What feeling had the Roman Catholics and the Puritans in common? What did their leaders resolve on? What was the object of the Main plot? What of the Bye? How many of the conspirators were executed? Who was imprisoned?

4. What was the object of the Hampton Court conference? How did James act there? What was almost the only good fruit of the conference? How many persons were employed on the work? When was it published? How did the type of this translation differ from that of most preceding versions?

5. What conspiracy against the King and the Government was made in the year 1605? Who were the chief conspirators? How long were they at work? What measures were taken by the conspirators?

6. How was the plot discovered? How were the conspirators punished? What day had been fixed for the commission of the deed?

7. What were passed in consequence of this plot?

8. What measures were taken by James in the north of Ireland? How did he raise money to effect these changes?

9. Which of James's sons died in 1612? Who then became heir? What minister died in the same year? To whom did James trust much after Cecil's death? Who were his chief favourites?

10. What were the effects of the Union in Scotland? When did James revisit it? How was he received? What was the object of his visit?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. **1608.**—The first permanent European settlement in **Canada** was made by the French, who then founded Quebec. Jacques Cartier, a French mariner, had sailed up the St. Lawrence as far as where Montreal now stands, in 1535; but no permanent settlement had then been made.

2. **1609.**—A twelve years' truce was concluded between the Dutch and the Spaniards. This was a practical acknowledgment of the independence of the Netherlands; but that was not formally recognized till the Peace of Westphalia in 1648.

3. **1610.**—Two rival associations were formed in Germany,—the **Evangelical Union**, under Frederick of the Palatinate (son-in-law of James I. of England), and the **Catholic League**, under Maximilian

of Bavaria. This led, a few years later, to the Thirty Years' War. (See 1618.)

4. **1610.**—The **Moriscos,** or remnant of the Moors, were expelled from Spain, on pretence of intrigues with their friends in Africa. The province of Valencia was thus stripped of an industrious and intelligent population.

5. **1612.**—The first British factory in India was established at **Surat** (165 miles north of Bombay).

QUESTIONS.—1. Who made the first permanent European settlement in Canada? When? What city did they found? Who had sailed up the St. Lawrence in 1535? How far?—2. When was the independence of the Netherlands practically acknowledged? When was it formally recognized? By what treaty of peace?—3. What two rival associations were founded in Germany in 1610? Who was at the head of each? To what war did this lead by-and-by? —4. Who were the Moriscos? When were they expelled from Spain? On what pretence? What effect had that step on Valencia?—5. When was the first British factory established in India? Where? How far from Bombay?

CHAPTER XII.

KING BY DIVINE RIGHT.

1. The Opening of the Struggle.
2. The Principle of the Commons.
3. James's First and Second Parliaments.
4. Sir Walter Ralegh.
5. The Thirty Years' War.
6. The Pilgrim Fathers.
7. Attack on the Monopolies.
8. Lord Bacon and the Commons.
9. His Fall.

1. IN James's reign we observe the beginning of that struggle between the King and the Parliament which ended in the overthrow of absolute monarchy, and the establishment of constitutional government. The Stewarts, like the Tudors, had an inordinate desire for unlimited power; but they were less judicious than the Tudors in pressing their claims. Their flatterers fed the mischievous notion. Many of the clergy preached from their pulpits the doctrine that the King, by **Divine right** to the throne, was above all laws. A book was published by Dr. Cowell full of arguments for this strange doctrine. But the Parliament took a high tone, insisting on the suppression of the book; and a royal proclamation was accordingly issued against it.

2. Ever since James's accession, the Commons had showed a calm but determined spirit of resistance. James would have dispensed with Parliaments altogether, had that been possible; but his personal extravagance forced him to have recourse to

them for supplies. By means of their right to withhold these, now well established, the Commons maintained their position. They began now to act on the principle,—**No supplies until grievances are redressed.** This drove the King to invent new modes of filling his treasury. The fines of the Star Chamber were increased; titles of nobility were openly sold. At the same time the old grievances of "purveyance"[1] and "monopolies"[2] were continued.

3. James's first Parliament sat from 1604 till 1610. In the latter year, the House of Commons remonstrated with the King on the subject of illegal taxation. The King dissolved Parliament, and governed without one for four years. In 1614 he was forced by his necessities to call a second Parliament. In this Parliament there appeared for the first time some of those who became leaders in the impending struggle,—as John Pym and John Eliot, as well as Thomas Wentworth who afterwards went over to the side of the Crown, and became the famous Earl of Strafford. When the King asked the Commons for supplies, they demanded first his abandonment of illegal taxation. James forthwith dissolved the Parliament, and sent four of the leading members to the Tower. He then raised money by benevolences, and ruled as an absolute Monarch for the next seven years.

1610 A.D.

1614 A.D.

RALEGH'S PRIVATE SEAL AND AUTOGRAPH.

4. Almost since the beginning of the reign **Sir Walter Ralegh** had been a prisoner in the Tower. There he had spent thirteen years, occupying the long days of captivity in writing a *History of the World*. The work, which is still much admired, he brought up almost to the Christian era. Growing weary of

[1] *Purveyance.*—The King's right to demand maintenance for himself and his Court in whatever part of the kingdom he was travelling.

[2] *Monopolies.*—A monopoly is an exclusive right granted to some one to deal in a certain article. As he had no rivals to compete with him, he could charge for his goods any price he chose, and the public were the sufferers.

confinement, he offered, as the price of his freedom, to disclose the locality of a gold mine of which he knew in South America. James set him free, and gave him charge of fourteen vessels for the expedition; but when he reached the South American coast, he found the Spaniards prepared to oppose his landing. Some skirmishes took place, and the Spanish town of St. Thomas[1] was burned. On Ralegh's return, James, to please the Court of Spain, caused him to be beheaded on the old charge of conspiracy. **1618** A.D.

5. The great **Thirty Years' War** began in 1618. Its immediate occasion was a contention for the crown of Bohemia between Frederick, Elector-Palatine of the Rhine, and Ferdinand of Austria. The leading Protestant Powers sided with the Elector. James, whose daughter Elizabeth was married to Frederick, sent a few troops to help his son-in-law; but his heart was not in the work, and the expedition failed.

6. James was as zealous as Elizabeth had been for supremacy and uniformity. He claimed the same absolute power in matters ecclesiastical as he assumed in civil affairs. Many of the Puritans, despairing of freedom of religion in England, went abroad. Among these was a company of refugees from Nottinghamshire, who went to Holland. After spending eleven years there, they became afraid that their children would soon lose their nationality by intermarriage with the Dutch. They therefore resolved to emigrate to America. In November 1620, their ship, the *Mayflower*, dropped her anchor in Cape Cod Bay. These were the **Pilgrim Fathers,** the founders of New England, which has now grown into a great and powerful nation,—the United States of America. **1620** A.D.

7. Parliament was again called together in 1621. The Commons assembled in a more determined mood than ever, and at once attacked the monopolies. Sir Giles Mompesson, who held the sole right of selling gold and silver thread, was accused of having sold a copper counterfeit. To escape the punishment he deserved, he fled beyond the seas; but an accomplice was sent to the Tower. Other impeachments followed at the

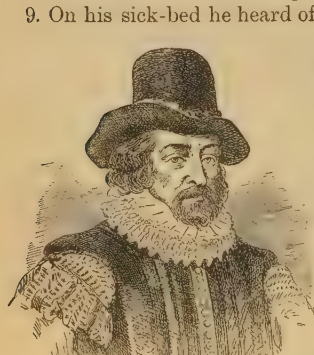
[1] *St. Thomas.*—On the Orinoco, in Guiana.

bar of the House of Lords, in which a bishop and a judge figured.

8. The Commons next attacked the corruption of justice, selecting Francis Bacon as their victim. Created Lord Verulam and Chancellor in 1618, he had for three years occupied the woolsack and enjoyed the royal favour. But he had followed the pernicious practice of the time, and had accepted presents from suitors in his court. His love of display and his want of thrift made him powerless against the temptation. Charged before the Lords upon twenty-two counts at the instance of the Commons, he made submission at first in a general way, but afterwards, under pressure, with a distinct confession of particular acts.

1621 A.D.

9. On his sick-bed he heard of the heavy sentence pronounced on him. He was to pay a fine of £40,000, to lie in the Tower during the pleasure of the King, to sink entirely from public life, and not to venture within a radius of twelve miles from the Court. The first two parts of the sentence proved nominal. James regarded the impeachment of one of his ministers as an encroachment on his prerogative. He therefore remitted Bacon's fine and let him go in two days. But the remaining five years of his life display the pitiful spectacle of a fallen man—great even in his ruin—struggling vainly to get a footing once more on the slippery steps from which he had been flung. He retired from the Court, and amused himself with his books and his bowls at Gorhambury, till his death in 1626.



FRANCIS, LORD BACON

QUESTIONS.—1. What struggle began in James's reign? In what did the struggle end? In what did the Stewarts resemble the Tudors? By whom was the mischievous notion fostered? What doctrine did many of the clergy preach?

2. What spirit had the Commons shown since the beginning of the reign? What enabled the Commons to maintain

their position? On what principle did they act? To what means of filling his treasury had the King recourse?

3. How long did James's first Parliament sit? Why was it dissolved? How long thereafter did he govern without one? What led him to call a second Parliament? When? Who were members of it? Why was it dissolved? How were some of its leaders punished? How did the King rule during the next seven years?

4. Who had been in the Tower since the beginning of the reign? How had he occupied his captivity? On what terms was he released? What was the result of his expedition? What was done to him on his return?

5. What great Continental war began in 1618? What was its occasion? What part did James take in it?

6. In what besides civil affairs did James claim absolute power? What did many Puritans do? Who were the Pilgrim Fathers? When did they land in America?

7. When did Parliament again meet? In what mood were the Commons? What did they attack? Of what was Sir Giles Mompesson accused?

8 What did the Commons next attack? Who was their victim? What pernicious practice had he followed? What made him unable to resist the temptation?

9. What was his sentence? What did James do? Why? How did he spend his later days?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1618.—The **Thirty Years' War** began in Bohemia, and soon involved in it the leading European States. Ferdinand, Duke of Styria, was appointed King of Bohemia and Hungary by his cousin, the Emperor Matthias; but the Protestants in those countries rose against him. When Ferdinand became Emperor in 1619, the Bohemians deposed him, and called Frederick, the Elector-Palatine, to the throne. The latter was defeated at Prague in 1620, and banished from the empire. In 1625 a Protestant League, headed by Christian of Denmark, was a failure. But when Ferdinand sought (1630) to reverse the Treaty of Passau (whereby religious freedom had been secured in 1552) the Protestants, headed by **Gustavus Adolphus** of Sweden, resolved to resist the attempt. Gustavus, aided with French money, was victorious at Leipsic in 1631, and at Lutzen in 1632; but he was himself slain on the latter field. After 1635, when the German Princes concluded the Treaty of Prague with the Emperor, the war became a general one between the Swedes and the French on the one side, and the Emperor on the other. The former were everywhere successful; and in 1648 the Emperor came to terms, and concluded the Peace of **Westphalia.**

QUESTIONS.—When did the Thirty Years' War begin? Where? In what contest did it originate? Whom did the Bohemians call to the throne? In what battle was he defeated? When? Who became leader of the Protestants in 1630? What step of Ferdinand's did they resolve to resist? What great victories did Gustavus gain? Where did he die? When was the Treaty of Prague concluded? Between whom? Who carried on the war after that? Who were successful? What peace terminated the war?

CHAPTER XIII.

THE CROWN AGAINST THE COMMONS.

1. The Protest of the Commons.
2. The French Marriage and the Spanish War.
3. Charles's First Parliament.
4. Charles's Second Parliament.
5. War with France.
6. Death of Buckingham.
7. Charles's Third Parliament—The Petition of Right.
8. A Scene in the House of Commons.
9. Strafford and Laud.
10. Thorough.
11. The Illegal Tribunals.
12. Ship-money.
13. Trial of Hampden.
14. Puritan Emigration.
15. The Liturgy in Scotland.
16. The National Covenant.
17. Charles's Fourth Parliament—The Short.

1. During the session of 1621, the contest between King and Commons reached its first crisis. The negotiations, then pending for a marriage between Prince Charles and the Spanish Infanta, excited strong fears in the House that the whole work of the Protestant Reformation might be undone if Spain and England were thus united. Coke, now an opponent of the Court, proposed a petition against the odious match; and a stormy debate arose between the partisans of James and the members of the country party. The King wrote an irritating letter to the Speaker, commanding the House not to meddle with "mysteries of State," nor to speak of the Spanish match. The House remonstrated; he replied, and threatened the leaders of the Opposition with the Tower. At this the spirit of the Commons rose, and they recorded in the Journals of their House a celebrated protest, claiming, "**That the liberties, franchises, privileges, and jurisdictions of Parliament are the ancient and undoubted birthright and inheritance of the subjects of England.**" They also claimed the right of interfering in all matters of Church and State, as well as freedom of speech. James with his own hand tore this resolution out of the Journals, and dissolved the Parliament. Several of the leading members of the House of Commons (including Coke and Pym), and a few also of the Lords, were committed to prison.

Dec. 18, **1621** A.D.

2. After all, the match, so hateful to the nation, was never completed. Charles and Buckingham undertook a journey to Spain in disguise, in order that the Prince might see his

bride-elect. But a quarrel between Buckingham and the Spanish minister, Olivarez, broke off the match. Charles, pretending that his father had recalled him, left Madrid abruptly, and was soon afterwards engaged in marriage to Henrietta-Maria of France. The result was hailed with joy in England; and when, in the following year, James called a new Parliament, and declared war against Spain, the Commons eagerly voted £300,000 for its prosecution. In 1625 James died of gout and ague, aged 59.[1] **1623** A.D.

3. *CHARLES I.*[2]—The Spanish War was continued under the new King, who had been carefully trained in his father's school of despotism. To meet its cost, Charles asked his **first Parliament** for a supply; but the majority of the Commons were Puritans, and, looking with a jealous eye on the Queen, who was a Roman Catholic and a Frenchwoman, they granted only £140,000, with tunnage and poundage[3] for one year. Enraged by this want of confidence, and especially at some charges brought against Buckingham, the King dissolved the Parliament in a fortnight. He then levied taxes by his own authority, revived the old abuse of **benevolences**, and began to quarter his soldiers in private houses. His chief advisers were the Queen and Buckingham. Henrietta hated the Puritans; and she had inherited from her father, as the King had from his, a strong attachment to absolute power. She never ceased, during her husband's life, to urge him on in that dangerous path towards which his own temper too strongly inclined him. **1625** A.D.

4. The **second Parliament**, meeting in 1626, prepared to impeach Buckingham. To shield his favourite, the King assumed the responsibility of his acts. The Commons insisted that the King's ministers were responsible to Parliament, and demanded Buckingham's dismissal. The King replied by dissolving the Parliament before **1626** A.D.

---

[1] In 1614, Napier of Merchiston invented the use of logarithms. The thermometer and the microscope came into use. Early in the next reign, in 1628, Harvey discovered the circulation of the blood.

[2] *Charles I.*—Son of James I. Married Henrietta-Maria of France. Reigned 24 years.

[3] *Tunnage and poundage.*—Import duties on every *tun* of wine and on every *pound* of certain commodities introduced into England. These were the origin of our "Customs"

it had passed a single Act. The usual illegal taxation followed. Many who resisted were imprisoned.

5. To add to the difficulties of Charles, a **war with France** began. Buckingham was again the cause. He quarrelled with Cardinal Richelieu, the great minister of France, who
1627 forbade the Duke ever again to enter the French domin-
A.D. ions. One of the grand objects of the Cardinal's government was the restraining of the Huguenots; and he was then engaged in besieging their stronghold, **La Rochelle** on the Bay of Biscay. Foiled in his attempts to take the city on the land side, he built a mole half a mile long across the mouth of the harbour.

6. Twice the English tried to relieve the besieged. Buckingham led the first expedition, the King hoping to revive his popularity by giving him the lead in a popular cause;
1628 but he returned, having lost almost half his men. While
A.D. at Portsmouth, preparing to sail with a second expedition, he was stabbed to the heart by Lieutenant Felton, who had been dismissed from the service. Earl Lindesay led the fleet to Rochelle; but no efforts could pierce the mole, and the city surrendered to Richelieu in 1628.

7. In the same year Charles called his **third Parliament.** Before granting any money, the Commons drew up a Bill—the famous **Petition of Right**—requiring the King to levy
1628 no taxes without consent of Parliament, to detain no
A.D. one in prison without trial, and to billet no soldiers in private houses. An assent was wrung from the reluctant Charles; and the Commons, rejoicing in this second great charter[1] of English liberty, gave him five subsidies,—equal to nearly £400,000. But in three weeks it was seen that the King regarded not the solemn promise he had made.

8. The next movement of the Commons was made on behalf of religious freedom. At the instance of Sir John Eliot, they resolved to maintain the **Articles of Religion** as ratified by Parliament. The Speaker (Finch) announced the King's order of an adjournment. He was forcibly held in the chair till the House had voted every innovator in religion and every minister

[1] *Second great charter.*—The first being *Magna Charta*, 1215 A.D.

who levied taxes without consent of Parliament to be "a capital enemy to the kingdom and commonwealth." The Parliament was at once dissolved (March 10), and nine of its leading members were thrown into prison, including Eliot, who died there. Sensible that his domestic policy would need all his energies, Charles then made peace with Spain and France.

9. For eleven years (1629 to 1640) no Parliament was called,—a case without parallel in our history. The Earl of **Strafford** and Archbishop **Laud** were the principal ministers of Charles during these years. Thomas Wentworth, afterwards Earl of Strafford, was a leading man among those who had forced the King to ratify the Petition of Right; but his early appearance as a patriot was prompted chiefly by jealousy of Buckingham. Not long after the Duke's death, he was easily won over to the Court party, with whose principles he naturally sympathized.

10. He laid a deep scheme to undermine the power of the Commons, and to secure for Charles absolute power. This plan he called, in his private letters, **Thorough**,—a name well expressing its nature. A standing army was to be raised, and before it all other power in the State was to be swept away. Appointed Viceroy of Ireland in 1631, he tried the first experiment in that island; and for seven years he kept both the native Irish and the English colonists crouching in terror under his iron rule. William Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury, directed the affairs of the Church. Being a zealous High-Churchman, he regarded with extreme aversion the religious services of the Puritans.

11. And now the nation groaned under the tyranny of three lawless tribunals, directed chiefly by these two ministers. In the **Star Chamber**[1] men were sentenced to fine, imprisonment, and even to mutilation, for resisting the policy of the King. The terrors of the **High Commission Court** were launched against all who dared to differ in religious opinions from Laud. Besides these, a **Council of York**, directed by Wentworth and endowed with absolute control over the northern counties, sat in the northern capital.

12. Of all the illegal taxes levied by Charles, **ship-money**[2]

[1] *Star Chamber.*—See p. 194, Note 1.

[2] *Ship-money.*—Before a permanent fleet existed, it was in the power of the King to require sea-ports to furnish him

was the most notorious. In olden times the maritime counties and towns had been often called on by the King to equip vessels for the defence of the shore. Finch the Chief-Justice, and Noy[1] the Attorney-General, proposed in 1634 to revive the tax, which dated as far back as the Danish invasion.[2] It was a small thing; but the spirit of the English nation revolted against the injustice. It was a war-tax levied during profound peace; it was laid on inland counties, which had never before been done; the money was to be applied, not to the equipment of a fleet, but to the support of a standing army; lastly, it was collected by authority of the King alone.

1634 A.D.

13. For three years there was no open resistance. Then **John Hampden,**[3] a gentleman of Buckinghamshire, refused to pay the tax of twenty shillings imposed on his estate. The case was tried in the Court of Exchequer: and a majority of the Judges,—who could then be dismissed at any time by the King,—gave their decision against Hampden, who became the hero of the day.

1637 A.D.

14. Through all these years a great emigration of the **Puritans** had been draining England of her best blood. The *Pilgrim Fathers* had set the example in the previous reign. And now—watched even in their houses by the spies of Laud, dragged causelessly before the High Commission, robbed, tortured, maimed—what wonder is it that, much as they loved England, the Puritans chose rather a home in the wilds of America, where there was none to hinder them?

15. Charles followed the policy of his father towards Scotland. During his visit to that country in 1633 he greatly favoured Episcopacy. Four years later, he commanded a Service Book, which had been specially prepared by Archbishop Laud, to be used in the churches of Edin-

1637 A.D.

---

with ships in time of war, and maritime counties to supply money for their maintenance. The revival of the tax excited violent opposition. It was enforced by fine and imprisonment. The tax was extended to the inland counties in 1635.

[1] *Noy.*—He, like Strafford, had at first been on the side of the patriots.

[2] *Danish invasion.*—In the end of the tenth century. When Æthelred the Unready failed to drive off the Danes in 993, he attempted to buy them off, and for this purpose levied a tax called *Dane-geld*, amounting to 12 pence in the year on each hide of land.

[3] *John Hampden.*—Born at London, 1594; killed on Chalgrove-field, 1643.

JOHN HAMPDEN'S HOUSE.

burgh; but when the Dean began in **St. Giles's** to read the new Liturgy, a great riot arose in the church, from which the Bishop and the Dean fled in fear.

16. Charles issued an order to enforce the reception of the new Prayers by the aid of soldiers if necessary. But the spirit of the Scots was roused. Within two months—February and March of 1638—people of all ranks and conditions signed a document called **The National Covenant**, by which they bound themselves to "defend the true religion," as they considered their own form of worship to be; and "to labour by all means lawful to recover the purity and liberty of the gospel as it was established and professed before the late innovations." A General Assembly of their Church, held soon afterwards at Glasgow, excommunicated the bishops and abolished Prelacy. Thus in thirty days the work of thirty years was undone, and the Church of Scotland was established more firmly than before on the basis of Presbyterianism.

17. Charles would gladly have crushed this bold opposition, but want of money entangled him in new difficulties every day. He was forced in 1640 to call the **Short Parliament** (his

fourth); but being met with the same demands as before, he soon dissolved it. Meanwhile a Scottish army under Alexander Leslie[1] had passed the Border and seized Newcastle.

QUESTIONS.—1. When did the contest reach its first crisis? What led to a stormy debate in the Commons? What did the King do? What protest did the Commons enter in their Journals? What did James then do?

2. What broke off the Spanish match? How was the result hailed in England? How did the Commons show their satisfaction? When did James die?

3. What reply was made by the Parliament to Charles's first demand for supplies? How did Charles receive this answer? What three things did he do? Who were his chief advisers? What was the influence of his Queen on his destinies?

4. In what year was Charles the First's second Parliament called? What occurred in connection with its sitting? How did James try to shield Buckingham? On what ground did the Commons demand his dismissal? How did the King reply?

5. How was the French war brought on? What was a chief object of Cardinal Richelieu's government? Where is La Rochelle?

6. What was the result of Buckingham's first expedition? What were the circumstances of his death? Where did it take place? Who led the fleet to La Rochelle? The date of the fall of that fortress?

7. When was the third Parliament of Charles I. called? What famous Petition was drawn up by the Commons? What were the chief provisions of this deed? How did Charles receive the Petition? What supplies were granted him by the Commons? How long did the King observe the restrictions laid on him by the Petition of Right?

8. On what behalf was the next movement of the Commons made? What did they resolve? What did the Speaker announce? Describe what followed. What did the King at once do? How many members were imprisoned? Who died in prison?

9. How many years was the country ruled by the King without a Parliament? Who were his principal advisers during these years? What part had Wentworth taken at first in politics? On what ground, probably?

10. What was Wentworth's scheme of "Thorough"? In what country was this scheme tried, and with what success? What do you know of Laud?

11. What three unlawful tribunals were directed chiefly by these two ministers? What do you know of these three courts?

12. What was the most notorious of the illegal taxes levied by Charles? What was its origin? When and by whose advice was this tax revived? What peculiar hardships attended its revival, and why was it illegal?

13. How did the resistance to this tax commence? Where was the case tried, and with what result? In what year did this occur?

14. What emigration had been going on? Who had set the example? What drove men across the seas?

15. What was the policy of Charles towards Scotland? What appointment was made by him during his visit to Scotland in 1633? What was the consequence of his order that a Service Book should be read in the churches of Edinburgh?

16. What was the National Covenant? In what year was it signed by the Scot-

[1] *Alexander Leslie.*—There were two Leslies in the Scottish army at this time, belonging to different families. *Alexander* Leslie, created Earl of Leven in 1641, who fought at Marston Moor, and to whom Charles surrendered at Newark in 1646; and *David* Leslie, afterwards created Lord Newark, who defeated Montrose at Philiphaugh in 1645, and whom Cromwell defeated at Dunbar in 1650. For details of these proceedings in Scotland, see THE ROYAL SCHOOL HISTORY OF SCOTLAND, pp. 228–234.

tish nation? What were the proceedings of the General Assembly at Glasgow?

17. What impeded the King in putting down the Scottish opposition to his orders? When was the fourth Parliament of Charles I. called? How did this Parliament act towards the King? What events had meanwhile taken place in the north?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. **1627.**—The Huguenots, or French Protestants, rebelled against the government of Louis XIII., and his minister **Richelieu**, and made Rochelle their head-quarters. In 1629, when Richelieu forced the garrison to surrender, the Protestants were deprived of their fortified town; but in other respects the Edict of Nantes[1] was confirmed.

2. **1638.**—The Sultan took Bagdad[2] from the Persians. The Turks have retained it ever since. The same Sultan restrained for a time the power of the Janissaries,[3] which was at this time at its height. They had strangled his uncle and his brother who had preceded him. They regained power after his death, and strangled another brother who succeeded him.

3. **1640.**—The **Portuguese** threw off the Spanish yoke, to which they had been subject for sixty years, and made the Duke of Braganza King, as John IV. He waged war with the Spaniards and with the Dutch, and formed an alliance with England, which continued till the time of the Peninsular War. The House of Braganza still holds the throne of Portugal.

4. **1640.—Frederick-William** (the Great Elector) succeeded to the Dukedom of Brandenburg.[4] In 1657 he threw off his allegiance to Poland, and became hereditary Duke of Prussia. He befriended the Protestants, and protected the Huguenots and the Waldenses. He formed an alliance with Holland against France in 1672.

QUESTIONS.—1. Who were the Huguenots? When did they rebel? Against whom? Who was Louis's minister? What place did the Huguenots make their head-quarters? When were they deprived of it? What edict was at the same time confirmed?—2. Who took Bagdad in 1638? From whom? Whose power did he restrain? How had they treated his immediate predecessors? How did they treat his successor?—3. When did the Portuguese throw off the Spanish yoke? How long had they been subject to it? Whom did they make King? With whom did he wage war? What alliance did he form? How long did it last?—4. Who became Duke of Brandenburg in 1640? What title did he assume in 1657? Whom did he befriend and protect?

---

[1] *Edict of Nantes.*—When Henry IV. of France became a Roman Catholic to conciliate the majority of his subjects, he granted the Edict of Nantes to pacify the Protestant minority, 1598.

[2] *Bagdad.*—On the Tigris, in Asiatic Turkey; 220 miles from the Persian Gulf.

[3] *Janissaries.*—Originally a bodyguard instituted by the Sultan in 1362, and composed of young Christian slaves. They subsequently became an order of infantry, and acquired great political influence.

[4] *Brandenburg.*—A province of Prussia, north of Saxony.

CHAPTER XIV.

THE LONG PARLIAMENT.

1. The Advice of the Peers.
2. The First Acts of the Commons.
3. The Work of Reform.
4. Impeachment of Strafford.
5. Bill of Attainder Passed.
6. His Execution.
7. Scotland and Ireland.
8. The Grand Remonstrance.
9. King Pym.
10. Roundheads and Cavaliers.
11. Impeachment of the Five Members.
12. Their attempted Arrest.
13. The Commons Resist.
14. Warnings of Danger.
15. The King in the House.
16. Discomfiture of Charles.
17. Attitude of London.
18. The Commons in the City.
19. Triumphant Return of the Five.
20. The Militia Bill.

1. CHARLES, in despair, called a Council of Peers at York, and laid before them the state of the country. The Peers wisely declined to act without the Commons, and told the King that there was only one course open to him, and that was to call another Parliament. Charles accordingly

1640 summoned Parliament to meet him for the fifth time,
A.D. and the memorable **Long Parliament** began its sittings, November 30, 1640. The majority of the members were Nonconformists, and Pym was leader of the popular or country party.

2. The first acts of the Commons did not tend to reässure the King. They set themselves vigorously to the work of

1641 **reversing the tyrannical Acts** of the previous eleven
A.D. years. The decision against Hampden regarding ship-money was cancelled, the prisons were thrown open, and all whom Laud and Strafford had confined there were released. Laud himself was thrown into the Tower. Strafford was in York, but the King had need of him in London. Charles pledged his royal word that the Parliament should not touch a hair of his head. Strafford went. Hardly had he taken his seat in the House of Lords when Pym entered and impeached him in the name of the Commons. He was deprived of his sword and sent to the Tower.

3. Having thus deprived Charles of his advisers, the Commons went steadily on with the **work of reform.** They voted that a Parliament should be held at least every three years, providing means by which, if the King proved unwilling, the people could of themselves elect members without writs. And

they also limited to a great extent that power of dissolution which Charles had so madly abused. They resolved that the Parliament then sitting should not be dissolved but by its own consent. They swept away all arbitrary tribunals, including the Star Chamber Court, the Court of High Commission, and the Council of York.

4. Determined to humble Strafford in the dust, Pym continued to work at the articles of impeachment, until, with the aid of a secret committee, all was ready for the trial. **Westminster Hall** was filled with the Lords and the Commons on the 22nd day of March 1641. Ladies crowded the galleries; the King sat unseen within a cabinet hung with arras.[1] The reading of the twenty-eight charges, and the reply of the accused, occupied the first day. On the second day, Pym, the leader of the impeachment, spoke long and weightily in support of the charges and in opposition to the reply. He described the dreadful tyranny of Wentworth in Ireland, producing witnesses in support of all he said. A Remonstrance from the Irish Parliament, breathing hatred of the Viceroy, was also read. Strafford asked time to prepare his defence, but he was required to answer on the spot. He strove hard to show, with that dignified eloquence he could wield so well, that all the evils he had done heaped together could not make treason.

1641 A.D.

5. From day to day the trial was prolonged, until on the 12th of April the notes of a speech, alleged to have been made by the prisoner at a private council, were brought into court against him. That document, found by young Vane among the papers of his father, and shown by him to Pym, who copied it, contained these words: "You have an army in Ireland that you may employ to reduce this kingdom to obedience." In spite of the suggestion that "this" might point to Scotland, the scrap of paper decided Strafford's fate. A **Bill of Attainder,**[2] passed

[1] *Arras.*—Hangings of tapestry; first made at Arras in the north of France.

[2] *Attainder.*—The difference between *impeachment* and *attainder* is one of form. An impeachment is a trial in which the Lords are the judges and the Commons are the accusers. In the case of attainder the procedure is by a Bill, which, like other Bills, requires to pass through both Houses, and receive the royal assent. The Lords can more easily acquit in an impeachment than they can reject a Bill of Attainder passed by the Commons.

in the Commons by a great majority, and more tardily by the Lords, condemned the great criminal to the scaffold. Men, strained to the highest pitch of nervous excitement, were filled with strange fancies and alarms. It was thought that Strafford would escape. Indeed Charles devised plans, and Strafford offered princely bribes, for freedom ; but Balfour, the lieutenant of the Tower, would listen to no allurements.

6. Nothing remained for the completion of Pym's work but the consent of Charles to the Attainder. Strafford wrote a letter to the King, full of a quiet, manly pathos, and resignation to his fate, beseeching his majesty to sign the Bill of Attainder, and thus save the commonwealth from ill. The King, after weakly asking advice from his Council, did what he probably had before resolved on, and wrote the fatal letters. The scaffold stood on **Tower Hill**; and after a few words of resignation Strafford laid his head on the block, and died (May 12, 1641). Bonfires lighted London streets that night, and men rode off to the country, crying joyfully, "His head is off!"

7. During the autumn holidays Charles went to **Scotland**. Hampden went there too, with a secret commission from the Parliament to watch the negotiations between the King and the Covenanters, in order to neutralize any attempt the former might make to wean the Scots from their adherence to the popular cause in England. Just then the whole island was electrified by the news of a terrible rising against the Protestants in **Ireland**. Sir Phelim O'Neill led the insurgents in Ulster. Fifty thousand are said to have perished, and civil war continued to rage for two years.

8. When Parliament reassembled, there were two distinct parties in the House of Commons. The King had friends in Falkland, Culpeper, and Hyde, afterwards Earl of Clarendon: Hampden and Pym were of course the leaders of the Opposition. And when, on a memorable day—Monday the 22nd of November 1641 — the document called **The Grand Remonstrance**, which recited all the misgovernment of the previous sixteen years, came to be discussed, the contest waxed so hot and personal that nothing but the voice of the great Hampden prevented bloodshed. A majority of eleven passed the Remonstrance, and it was presented to the

Nov. 22, 1641 A.D.

King. It was afterwards printed and scattered over the land, that the nation might know what the Parliament had already done, and what remained for it to do.

9. Pym's lodging at Chelsea formed a centre of political activity. There the opponents of the Court often met to dine; and, as they afterwards rode through the neighbouring lanes, they talked of those "other things in preparation" to which the Remonstrance menacingly referred. This king of men—the people really used to call him **King Pym**—occupied the mind of Charles more than any other of his subjects; and he would gladly have bought the rival monarch over. The Chancellorship of the Exchequer was offered to the statesman—and declined. Culpeper then received the place.

10. Meanwhile, symptoms of a brooding storm appeared. The apprentices and citizens thronging to Westminster came to blows during the Christmas holidays with the soldiers of the King; and out of the tumult arose those historic nicknames, **Roundhead and Cavalier.**[1] Before December closed, ten bishops went through frost and snow to prison in the Tower, charged with attempting to subvert the Parliament; because they had sent a protest to the House of Lords, declaring that they meant to stay away on account of the riots, and insisting that no laws passed in *their* absence could be valid.

11. A fatal thought meanwhile entered the King's head. In utter defiance of legal form, he instructed his Attorney-General to **impeach five members** of the Commons, and one of the Lords, of high treason. The articles were seven :— **1642**
1. A general charge of trying to subvert government and A.D.
law. 2. The authorship of the Grand Remonstrance.
3. Tampering with the army. 4. Traitorous invitations to the Scottish rebels, urging them to enter England. 5. Endeavouring to subvert the rights and being of Parliaments. 6. The raising of riots. 7. The levying of actual war against the throne. The accused peer, Lord Kimbolton, at once rose and denied the charges. The day was the 3rd of January 1642.

[1] *Roundhead and Cavalier.* — The former name was given in derision to the members of the Opposition, in allusion to the Puritan fashion of wearing closely cropped hair. The King's party received the latter name from their gay manners and dress, and their gallant bearing.

12. The same day Pym's servant called him to the door of the Commons, and told him that his trunks, study, and chamber had been sealed up by persons sent from the King. Hollis received similar news at the same time. The House declared, when Pym announced the fact, that both law and privilege had been violated by the act, and were proceeding to urge a vigorous resistance, when worse occurred. The King's Sergeant-at-Arms came with a **royal message** to the Speaker, requiring that five members, whose names he distinctly pronounced—Denzil Hollis, Sir Arthur Haselrig, John Pym, John Hampden, and William Strode—should be given up as guilty of high treason.

13. The House sent the Sergeant out to his mace, which he had not dared to carry in. It then appointed a deputation of four to carry a message to the King, intimating that an answer would be returned as speedily as the importance of the matter would allow, and that the members were ready meanwhile to answer all *legal* charges. The Speaker then ordered the five members to attend daily in the House until further direction; and next day at ten the House was desired to sit in **Grand Committee** to consider the message. With the setting sun an order was given to break the seals in the houses of the accused, and to take the sealers into custody.

14. On the following morning the House of Commons met at eight, their usual hour, and sat until dinner-time at twelve. The five members spoke, defending themselves against the articles of impeachment; but, of all, the words of Hampden had the greatest weight. Rising at twelve, they adjourned for an hour to dine. During that hour two **warnings of approaching danger** reached the Five. One warning came from Lady Carlisle direct to Pym; the other from Lord Chamberlain Essex to all the Five. Knowing therefore what was about to happen, they went to their seats in the afternoon, in obedience to the Speaker's order.

15. The debate, as to how the Five should act, was proceeding, when a French officer appeared at the door, and told that the King had left Whitehall with a band of armed men, and was then near the Hall. The Five went hastily down to the river-stairs, Strode having been dragged out by a friendly hand. Before they had yet entered the boat that awaited them, Charles

and his train of four hundred reached the House. Forming a lane in **Westminster Hall**, his attendants enabled Charles to enter the lobby, into which some eighty pressed after him. A loud knock,—and through the violently opened door the King entered. Outside stood a mass of armed men, who would not allow the door to be shut. Jan. 4, 1642 A.D.

16. The members doffed their hats: the King did the same. "A crowd of bare faces" lined the benches. One quick look towards the place Pym always held told Charles that "**the birds were flown.**" He did not know what to say, and stood a long time silent on the step of the Speaker's chair, which had been vacated on his approach. The King at last spoke, reiterating his charge of treason, and denying the right of traitors to shelter themselves under privilege. Stammering through some broken sentences to this effect, he put the question, "Is Mr. Pym here?" but no answer came. In like manner he asked for Hollis. Lenthal, the Speaker, on most occasions a timorous man, made answer to the royal questions, "that he had neither eyes to see nor tongue to speak in that place but as the House was pleased to direct." Baffled on every hand, the King turned to go out. As he passed to the door, the mutterings of the storm broke out in cries of "Privilege! Privilege!"

17. The night succeeding the outrage on the Commons saw London in a fever of excitement, which grew to sterner fury when a royal proclamation ordered the ports to be shut lest the Five should escape. Another edict soon followed, forbidding any person to afford them shelter. **London**, ever a stronghold of English liberty, proved true as steel in this crisis. The members found a safe shelter in Coleman Street; and although on the 5th Charles went down to Guildhall through angry crowds, and there demanded their surrender, they were not betrayed. The ominous cry of the day before—"Privilege! Privilege!" and a yet more daring sign of public feeling—the words, "To your tents, O Israel!" scribbled on a scrap of paper and flung into the coach—ought to have made the foolish Monarch pause and think, while he had a chance.

18. That very day it was carried in the Commons that a Committee of the House should sit **at Guildhall**; which accordingly met there on the following morning, but soon removed to

Grocers' Hall. Resolutions against the outrage and the encroachments of the King—the examination of witnesses regarding the violence of Tuesday—the reception of the Five among them—and the preparations for a triumphant return to Westminster, formed the work of this Committee.

19. The King fled from London to Hampton Court on Monday the 10th. Next day all London and all Southwark lined the banks of Thames between the Bridge and Westminster Stairs, to see the **return of the Five.** It was a bright winter day. Embarking at the Three Cranes[1] in one of the splendid barges of the City Companies, they rowed up to Westminster amid tumultuous cheering and the incessant rattle of musketry and roar of cannon. The Speaker and the members stood to greet the Five, who sat for an instant and then rose with bared heads. Pym spoke for all, thanking the citizens of London for shelter and hospitality.

20. Towards the end of February the Queen fled to Holland, taking with her the English crown jewels, which she sold to supply the King with arms and military stores. For some months messages passed between the King and the Parliament; but there was no inclination on either side to yield. At last the Commons demanded that the King should give his

1642 assent to a **Militia Bill,** authorizing lord-lieutenants, A.D. who were named in the Bill, to raise forces. This really transferred to Parliament the command of the army. Charles refused his assent, and both sides prepared for war.

QUESTIONS. — 1. What steps did Charles in his despair take? What did the Peers advise? What Parliament was then called? When did it begin its sittings? What party had the majority?

2. To what work did the Commons set themselves? How was Laud treated? Where was Strafford? What induced him to go to London? What was immediately done to him?

3. What measures of reform did the Commons next undertake? What tribunals were swept away?

4. When did Strafford's trial begin? What occupied the first day? What were the proceedings of the second day? What did Strafford strive to show?

5. What document decided his fate? How was he condemned? What fears or fancies filled men's minds?

6. What was still required for the completion of Pym's work? What manly course did Strafford take? How did Charles show his indecision? What did he at last do? How was the news of Strafford's death received?

7. Where did Charles go in the autumn? Who also went there? Why?

[1] *The Three Cranes.*—A wharf in the city; so called, probably, from the sign of a house or inn near it. (See p. 330.)

What news came from Ireland? How long did civil war rage there?

8. What friends had the King in Parliament? Who were the leaders of the Opposition? What famous document was discussed? What majority carried it? What was done with it?

9. Where did the opponents of the Court often meet? How did Charles try to get rid of Pym's opposition?

10. What was the origin of the names Roundhead and Cavalier? How many bishops were sent to the Tower in December? Why?

11. What fatal step did the King then take? What were the charges laid against the Five?

12. What news did Pym and Hollis receive in the House on January 3rd? What did the House declare? What royal message then arrived?

13. How did the House reply to it? What order did the Commons issue that evening?

14. Who spoke with most power the following day? What occurred during the dinner-hour? Where did the Five go in the afternoon?

15. What news arrived while the debate was proceeding? Where did the Five go? How did Charles enter the House? Who stood outside?

16. What did Charles soon perceive? To what effect did the King speak? What questions did he put? What did the Speaker answer? What cries reached him as he retired?

17. What orders were issued next day? What was the attitude of London? How was this shown? What should have made Charles pause in his course?

18. What resolution did the Commons pass that very day? For what were preparations made?

19. When did the King flee from London? What took place next day? Who received the Five at Westminster?

20. When did the Queen flee? Whither? What led directly to the Civil War?

CHAPTER XV.

THE CIVIL WAR.

1. The Royal Standard Unfurled.
2. Adherents of each Party.
3. The Campaign of 1643.
4. Oliver Cromwell—The Ironsides.
5. The Solemn League and Covenant.
6. Marston Moor.
7. Trial and Execution of Laud.
8. The Self-denying Ordinance.
9. The New Model in the Army.
10. Naseby and Philiphaugh.
11. Surrender of Charles.
12. The King a Prisoner.
13. Pride's Purge.
14. Trial of the King.
15. Charles's Defence.
16. His Execution.

1. THREE months after his flight from London, Charles presented himself before **Hull**, and demanded admission. Sir John Hotham, the governor, refused to open the gates; and Charles retired to York. The Commons by a majority approved of his conduct; but the Royalist minority, comprising 32 Peers and 60 Commoners, and including Falkland and Hyde, withdrew and joined Charles at York. Conciliation was now hopeless. On the 25th of August—a day of wind and storm—Charles unfurled the royal standard on the Castle Hill of **Nottingham**, and 10,000 men gathered around it.

April **1642** A.D.

Aug. 25.

2. The soldiers of the King were gentlemen, well mounted, and skilled in the use of arms; but he was badly supplied with artillery and ammunition, and depended for money nearly altogether on the loyalty of his Cavaliers. The Parliamentary ranks were filled with ploughboys and tradesmen, as yet raw and untrained; but the possession of London and the Thames, along with the power of levying taxes, gave the Commons decided advantage in a continued war. The King in person commanded the Cavaliers; the **Earl of Essex** was chosen to lead the Roundheads. Prince Rupert, the nephew of Charles, led the Royalist cavalry. The opening battle was fought at **Edgehill**[1] in Warwickshire; but it decided nothing, though it checked the King's march on London. During the winter Charles remained at Oxford.

Oct. 23, **1642** A.D.

3. The campaign of 1643 was marked by three events. Bristol, then the second city in the kingdom, was taken by the Royalists. In the flush of this triumph, Charles laid siege to Gloucester; but just when success seemed sure, Essex moved rapidly from London with all the train-bands and raised the siege. Some days later, he defeated the royal army in the first Battle of *Newbury*,[2] where Lord Falkland fell. The Siege of **Gloucester** was the turning-point of the strife. Thenceforward the cause of the Parliament grew strong, although the loss of Hampden, who fell early in the war while skirmishing at *Chalgrove*[3] with Rupert's cavalry, was at first severely felt.

Sept. 20, **1643** A.D.

4. A greater soldier and statesman than Hampden was already in the field. At Edgehill, a captain of horse named **Oliver Cromwell** had fought in the army of the Parliament. He was then above forty years of age, and had long led a peaceful country life in his native shire of Huntingdon. Among the members of the Long Parliament he was known chiefly by his slovenly dress, of Puritan cut and colour, and by his strange, rough, rambling speeches. He saw the secret of the King's early success, and resolved that the clownish soldiers of the

[1] *Edgehill*, or Kineton, a small village; 72 miles north-west of London.

[2] *Newbury*.—In Berkshire; 50 miles west of London.

[3] *Chalgrove*, or Chalgrove-field, in Berkshire, near Watlington; 15 miles south-east of Oxford, and 37 north-west of London.

PLACES OF INTEREST.

1642. Hull.
" Edgehill.
" Oxford.
1643. Bristol.
" Newbury (1).
" Chalgrove.
1644. Marston Moor.
" York.
1644. Newcastle.
" Newbury (2).
1645. Naseby.
" Philiphaugh.
" Oxford.
" Newark.
1647. Carisbrook Castle.
1648. Preston.

Parliament should soon be more than a match for the royal Cavaliers. He began with his own regiment; for he was now Colonel Cromwell. Filling its ranks with sedate and God-fearing men, he placed them under a system of drill and discipline so strict that they soon became celebrated as the **Ironsides** of Colonel Cromwell.

5. Towards the end of 1643 a Solemn League and Covenant[1] was made between the Parliaments of England and Scotland. The English Parliament was led to accept the aid of the Scots by the appeal of Charles to the Irish for help—a step which lost him not a few of his supporters. In the League, the Parliaments pledged themselves to the union of the two kingdoms on the basis of uniformity of religion, the abolition of Prelacy, and the freedom of Parliament. Many of the Bishops were cast into prison, and hundreds of the clergy were ejected from their livings.

1643 A.D.

6. In terms of the League, 20,000 Scottish troops crossed the Border in the beginning of 1644. In the south, under Essex, the soldiers of the Parliament suffered many reverses; but in the north, on **Marston Moor**,[2] the Roundheads, aided by the Scots, gained a brilliant victory. On that day Cromwell and his Ironsides swept all before them. Rupert and his cavalry, victors in many a dashing charge, could not withstand the terrible onset of these Puritan dragoons. The immediate result of the victory was the capture of York and Newcastle by the troops of the Parliament. A second Battle of *Newbury*, fought towards the close of the campaign, ended in the defeat of Charles. Lord Manchester's refusal to pursue the King's broken columns led to a quarrel between him and Cromwell.

July 2, **1644** A.D.

7. During the greater part of 1644, the trial of Laud, who had been in prison since 1641, was going on. He was condemned by Act of Attainder[3] in the last month of the year, and was executed in January 1645.

1645 A.D.

8. An offshoot from the Puritan party had been for some time taking shape and gathering strength in the nation. These

[1] *League and Covenant.*—Different from the National Covenant, signed by the Scots alone, in 1638.

[2] *Marston Moor.*—In Yorkshire; 4 or 5 miles west of York.

[3] *Attainder.*—See Note, p. 273.

were the **Independents**, of whom Cromwell was the chief. In religion, they held that every Christian congregation formed an independent Church of itself, and owed obedience to no synod or assembly. In politics, they desired to see monarchy overthrown and a republic erected. They were called in their own day Root-and-branch Men. By their means an Act called the **Self-denying Ordinance** was passed in April 1645: it forbade all members of Parliament to hold command in the army. Essex and Manchester were therefore removed; and Sir Thomas Fairfax was appointed Commander-in-chief: but Cromwell, though a member of Parliament, was soon called, with the rank of Lieutenant-General, to lead the cavalry, and became in reality, though not in name, the General of the entire army. 1645 A.D.

9. Then Cromwell introduced his **New Model**, and organized that strange army, by means of which he achieved all his glories. There were probably hypocrites in the ranks, but a spirit of sincere religion pervaded every regiment. Officers and men met regularly in the tents and the barrack-rooms to pray. They neither gambled, nor drank, nor swore. They often sang hymns as they moved to battle. And when, in later days, they fought the battles of England on the Continent, the finest troops in Europe were scattered before their terrible charge.

10. The decisive battle of the Civil War was fought at **Naseby**,[1] where the Royalist army was utterly routed by Fairfax. Charles himself was forced to seek shelter in Wales. The victories of Montrose, who gained six successive battles in Scotland, and appeared to be complete master of that kingdom, gave the King some hope of maintaining his cause there; but that hope soon faded, when David Leslie defeated the Marquis at Philiphaugh.[2] Rupert surrendered Bristol. The unfortunate Charles returned to Oxford, and reöpened negotiations with the Parliament. June 14, 1645 A.D.

11. The Parliament was thus triumphant. But it was no longer a united body. During the war it had slowly resolved

[1] *Naseby.* — In Northamptonshire; 36 miles east of Birmingham.

[2] *Philiphaugh.* — About 2 miles west of Selkirk. Thereafter Montrose went to Norway, and then to France, where he obtained great distinction. In 1650, he made a fruitless descent on the north of Scotland in behalf of Charles II. He was captured, and was hanged at Edinburgh.

itself into two factions: the one Presbyterian and constitutional, desirous only of limiting the power of the King; the other

A CAVALIER AND A ROUNDHEAD.

Independent and republican, bent on the destruction of the throne. Charles, in the faint hope of regaining his position by the aid of the Presbyterians, had surrendered himself to the **Scottish army** at Newark.[1] Receiving him loyally, they offered to support him if he would sign the National Covenant. But this he refused to do; and after some time he was, by his own desire, transferred to the English Parliament. When the Scots stipulated for his safety and freedom, the Parliament expressed great indignation that they should be even suspected of evil designs on their King. It is due, therefore, to these Scottish Presbyterians to say, that when they gave up King Charles they had not the faintest suspicion of the deed soon to be perpetrated at Whitehall.

12. Rapidly the plot thickened. Cornet **Joyce**, with a band

[1] *Newark.*—On the Trent; 20 miles north-east of Nottingham.

of horse, acting under secret orders from Cromwell, seized the King at Holmby House in Northamptonshire. The royal prisoner, carried from castle to castle, found means at last to escape, and reached the Isle of Wight, in hope of crossing to the Continent; but being forced to take refuge in Carisbrooke Castle,[1] he was there guarded more jealously than ever. The Scots, alarmed at the fast growing power of the Independents, passed the Border under the Duke of Hamilton. About the same time the Royalists of Essex and Kent began to stir. Leaving these to Fairfax, Cromwell pressed northward by rapid marches, routed Hamilton at Preston[2] in Lancashire; and, entering Scotland, soon established at Edinburgh a government hostile to Charles.

13. During his absence threatening murmurs arose from the Presbyterians, who still formed the majority in the Parliament. On his return to London, Cromwell met these murmurs boldly and decisively. Colonel Pride, on the morning of the 6th of December 1648, surrounded the House with his troopers, and prevented the entrance of about two hundred Presbyterian members.[3] This is called **Pride's Purge.** The remainder—about fifty Independents, known as the **Rump**—voted hearty thanks to Cromwell for his great services. And then the death of the King was resolved on.

14. A tribunal appointed by the Rump, and styled the **High Court of Justice,** met in Westminster Hall for the trial of the King. The Peers had refused to take any part in the proceedings. The members of the court, of whom about sixty sat in judgment, were taken chiefly from the army, and from the Independent Commoners. A lawyer named Bradshaw was the president; Cook acted as the chief solicitor for the nation. The King, brought from St. James's Palace, was placed within the bar, and was there charged with tyranny, especially in waging war against his people.

Jan. 20, **1649** A.D.

15. Never did Charles appear to greater advantage than on this occasion. Summoning up all that kingly dignity of which

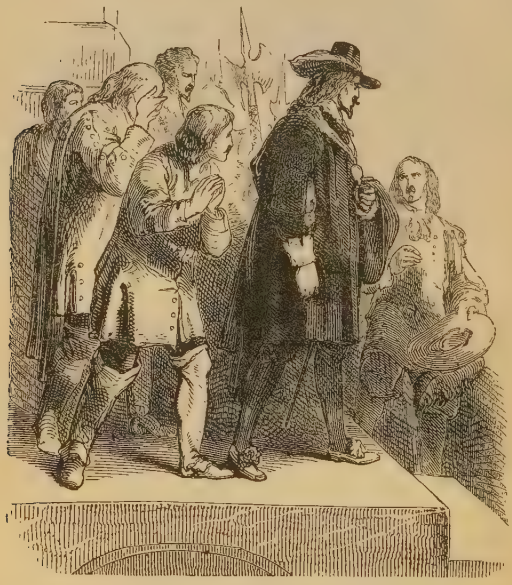
[1] *Carisbrooke.*—A castle and village in the northern division of the Isle of Wight, 2 miles west of Newport.

[2] *Preston.*—Thirty miles north-east of Liverpool.

[3] *Presbyterians.*—Reinstated, 1660.

he possessed no small share, he refused to be tried by a tribunal created in defiance of the laws. Where, he asked, were the Peers, who alone, by an ancient maxim of the Constitution, could sit in judgment on a Peer? But all defence was useless, for the judges had already decided the matter among themselves. The case lasted seven days, and then sentence of death was pronounced.

16. Three days later, on the 30th of January 1649, in front



KING CHARLES ON THE WAY TO EXECUTION.

of the Banqueting Hall of Whitehall Palace, **Charles Stewart** was **beheaded.** Soldiers, horse and foot, surrounded the black scaffold, on which stood two masked headsmen beside the block. The silent people stood in thousands far off. The King was attended by Bishop Juxon. He died a Protestant of the English Church, declaring that the guilt of the Civil War did not rest with him, for the Par-

Jan. 30, **1649** A.D.

liament had been the first to take up arms; but confessing, at the same time, that he was now suffering a just punishment for the death of Strafford. One blow of the axe, and all was over. A deep groan burst from the assembled multitude as the executioner raised the bleeding head and cried, "This is the head of a traitor!"[1]

QUESTIONS.—1. What town closed its gates against Charles? Who was governor? What did the Commons say of his conduct? What did the minority do? When was the royal standard unfurled? Where?

2. What was the character respectively of the opposing armies? What advantage had the Commons? Who were the leaders of the rival forces? Who led the Royalist cavalry? Where and when was the first battle fought? Where did Charles spend the winter?

3. By what three events was the campaign of 1643 marked? What was the date of the Battle of Newbury? What leader of the Parliamentary cause fell early in the war? Where?

4. Who was Oliver Cromwell? What were his rank and his age when the Battle of Edgehill was fought? What was his personal appearance? What measures were taken by him for improving the army of the Parliament? What was his regiment called?

5. Between whom was the Solemn League and Covenant made? What led to its adoption? What were its terms? How were the Bishops treated? What was done to the clergy of the Established Church?

6. What accession did the Parliamentary cause receive early in 1644? How did the Parliamentary forces fare in the south? What great victory was obtained by them in the north? To whom was the victory due? The date? What was the immediate result of the victory? When was the second Battle of Newbury fought? What quarrel followed the battle?

7. Who was executed early in 1645? How long had he been imprisoned?

8. Of what religious party was Oliver Cromwell the chief? What were the opinions of this party? What were their political views? By what nickname were they known? When was the Self-denying Ordinance passed, and what was it? Who was made commander-in-chief of the Parliamentary army? Who was in reality the general of the entire army? What was his title?

9. What was the peculiarity of Cromwell's army? Where did his soldiers win renown in later days?

10. Which was the decisive battle of the Civil War? When was it fought? Who gained the victory? Where did the King then go? What was the success of the Royalist arms in Scotland? Where and by whom was Montrose finally defeated? What place did Rupert surrender? Whither did King Charles return?

11. Into what two factions had the Parliament resolved itself during the war? To whom did Charles surrender? Upon what condition did the Scots offer to support the fallen Monarch? What stipulation was made by the Scottish Presbyterians on giving up the person of the King?

12. Where and by whom was the King seized? Where was he eventually confined? What measures were taken by the Scots and by the Royalists of Essex and Kent? Give an account of

[1] The tax on landed property, and the excise—a duty levied on certain articles of home manufacture—were first imposed by the Parliament, to meet the expense of the Civil War The Dutch painters Rubens and Vandyke enjoyed the patronage of Charles Among the improvements of his reign may be noted the invention of the barometer, the first use of coffee in England, and the first rude outline of the General Post.

Cromwell's proceedings. Where did he defeat Hamilton?

13. How were the murmurs of the Presbyterian party in the House of Commons met by Cromwell? What extreme measure was then resolved on?

14. By what court was Charles I. tried? Where did the trial take place? How was the court constituted? Who was the president? Who acted as solicitor for the nation? What charge was brought against Charles?

15. What was the demeanour of the King during the trial? What was the sentence of the court?

16. When and where was the King beheaded? Describe the circumstances attending his death.

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. **1644.**—The Manchoo Tartars seized the throne of China, which they have held ever since.

2. **1647.**—The Neapolitans revolted under **Masaniello** (Thomas Aniello), because the Spanish Viceroy taxed their fruits and vegetables. The revolt was for a time successful; but Masaniello's mind gave way under the intoxication of success, and he was shot by the Spanish soldiery while resting in a convent after an exciting harangue.

3. **1648.**—The Civil Wars of the **Fronde** broke out in France during the government of the Queen (Anne of Austria) and Cardinal **Mazarin**, while Louis XIV. was a minor. The Court and the nobility were opposed by the Parliament and the people. The latter were called *Frondeurs* (Slingers) from an incident in a street fight. The Court party triumphed in 1653.

4. **1648.**—The Peace of **Westphalia** terminated the Thirty Years' War, and recognized the principle of the "balance of power" in Europe. The parties to it were France, Germany, and Sweden. The treaty stripped Germany of its ancient glory and supremacy, and raised France to the foremost place among European powers. France also gained Elsass; Sweden, part of Pomerania and the bishoprics of Verdun and Bremen. The Lower Palatinate was restored to the Elector-Palatine. The religious and political rights of the German States were established. The independence of Switzerland and Holland was secured (Belgium remained under the rule of Spain till 1714). Bohemia was secured to Austria. The war between France and Spain continued till 1659, when the Peace of the Pyrenees was concluded. France gained Roussillon, north of the Pyrenees, and some parts of Lorraine and the Netherlands.

QUESTIONS.—1. Who now hold the Chinese throne? When did they seize it?—2. When did the Neapolitans revolt from Spain? Why? Who was their leader? What was his fate?—3. When did the Wars of the Fronde break out? Between whom? What was the origin of the name? Which party triumphed? When?—4. When was the Peace of Westphalia concluded? What principle did it recognize? Who were the parties to it? What country did it raise to the foremost place among European powers? Mention the chief provisions of the treaty. How long did the war between

France and Spain continue? What treaty of peace was then concluded? | What did France gain by the Peace of the Pyrenees?

CHAPTER XVI.

THE COMMONWEALTH.

1. The New Government.
2. Cromwell's Three Difficulties.
3. The State of Ireland.
4. Cromwell's Reduction of the Island.
5. Charles II. Proclaimed in Scotland.
6. Cromwell in Scotland.
7. Dunbar Drove.
8. Cromwell's "Crowning Mercy."
9. Wanderings of Charles.
10. The Navigation Act and the Dutch War.
11. Tromp and Blake.
12. Cromwell's Quarrel with the Parliament.
13. Expulsion of the Parliament.
14. Barebone's Parliament.
15. Oliver, Protector.
16. Oliver's Foreign Policy.
17. The New House of Lords.
18. Oliver Dissolves his Second Parliament.
19. Death of Oliver.
20. Richard, Protector.

1. ENGLAND, now a **Commonwealth**, continued so for more than eleven years. A fragment of the Long Parliament still sat. Royalty and the House of Lords were formally abolished. The government was vested in a Council of forty-one members. Of this Council, Bradshaw was President; John Milton was Foreign Secretary: Cromwell and Fairfax directed the Army; Sir Harry Vane controlled the Navy. But Cromwell and his soldiers really ruled the Nation. The Duke of Hamilton and two other Royalist nobles were tried and executed. **1649** A.D.

2. Three great difficulties then met Cromwell—mutiny among his soldiers, a Royalist rising in Ireland, and another in Scotland. Some of the soldiers, who had combined under the name of **Levellers**, and who wished all distinctions of rank to be abolished, rose in dangerous mutiny in Oxfordshire. The vigour and decision of Oliver soon quelled these restless spirits.

3. The subjugation of **Ireland** was his next task. Since the insurrection of 1641 all had been confusion there. The Marquis of Ormond, leader of the Irish Royalists, who held nearly all the fortresses in the island, proclaimed Charles II. Dublin, Derry, and Belfast were the only strongholds of the Parliament. Cromwell, having received his commission as Lord-Lieutenant, landed near Dublin with 16,000 men. It was a

small force, but it consisted of soldiers who knew not what it was to yield.

4. In six months Oliver completely broke the power of the Royalist party in Ireland. The sack of **Drogheda**[1] was
1649 the chief operation of the war. Garrisons were put to
A.D. the sword, whole cities were left unpeopled. *Wexford*[2] was deluged with the blood of massacre. The surrender of *Clonmel*[3] completed Cromwell's triumph. Everywhere the Roman Catholics fled before their terrible foe. When Cromwell left for London, Ireton[4] and Ludlow[5] remained to guard the conquered island. On his arrival in London, Oliver received public thanks for his great services, and was created Lord-General of the Armies of the Commonwealth.

5. The Scottish nation, loudly condemning the execution of Charles I., had, immediately on receiving the fatal news, **proclaimed his son King.** They had taken up arms, they said, not to overturn a throne, but to maintain the Presbyterian worship, so dear to their fathers. They now invited young Charles to Scotland. At first he refused their aid, disliking the idea of becoming Presbyterian, and he sent the Marquis of Montrose from Holland to attempt a rising independently of the Covenanters. That nobleman was defeated, captured, and executed.

There was then no resource for Charles but to place him-
1650 self in the hands of the Scottish Presbyterians. He
A.D. agreed to sign the Covenant, and landed at the mouth of the Spey.[6] A joyous welcome met him at Edinburgh.

6. Oliver, as was his custom, lost not a day; but when he reached the Border, he found the whole district from Tweed to

[1] *Drogheda.*—On the river Boyne, 31 miles north of Dublin.

[2] *Wexford.*—On the river Slaney, 64 miles south-west of Dublin.

[3] *Clonmel.*—On the river Suir, 45 miles north-east of Cork. *Clon* (Irish, *cluan*, *cluain*), is a common prefix in Irish names. It signifies a fertile strip of land surrounded by a moor or bog.

[4] *Ireton.*—Henry Ireton, son-in-law of Cromwell; born, 1610; died at Limerick, 1651. He had been taken prisoner by the Royalists at Naseby, but had afterwards escaped from his captors.

[5] *Ludlow.*—Edmund Ludlow, a lawyer by profession; born 1620; died in Switzerland, 1693. He succeeded Ireton in the command of the army in Ireland, but was deprived of it for opposing Cromwell's promotion to the Protectorate.

[6] *The Spey.*—In the north of Scotland; the boundary, at its mouth, between the counties of Elgin and Banff.

Forth laid waste. The Scots under **David Leslie,**[1] a watchful and prudent leader, lay intrenched near Edinburgh. The Ironsides were met by famine—a new and terrible adversary. As Oliver changed his position, he was followed by the cautious Leslie, whose tactics were to avoid a battle and let hunger do its work.

7. At length the Lord-General was so hemmed in on the shore near **Dunbar,**[2] that he had no choice left but a disgraceful surrender or a hopeless attack on the strong and well-posted Scottish army. Already he had resolved to send away his baggage by sea, and to cut his way through the Scottish host at the head of his horsemen, when, to his great surprise and joy, he saw the enemy leaving the hills and advancing to offer battle on the plain! This movement is said to have been made by the advice of the clergy in the Scottish camp, and sorely against the will of Leslie. The Scots were totally routed, and thousands fell in the battle and the flight. Such was *Dunbar Drove.* Edinburgh and Glasgow yielded without delay to the conqueror.

Sept. 3, **1650** A.D.

8. In the following winter King Charles was crowned at **Scone**[3] on New-Year's-Day, when he signed the Solemn League and Covenant, and thus agreed to maintain unbroken the Presbyterianism of Scotland. Leslie and his Covenanters were at Stirling, still formidable. Cromwell moved to besiege Perth, in order to cut off from them all Highland supplies. Suddenly, with Charles at their head, the Scots marched into England. They had reached **Worcester,** when Cromwell overtook them. It was the anniversary of *Dunbar Drove.* A battle followed, which Cromwell was accustomed to call his "crowning mercy." The army of Charles was scattered.

Sept. 3, **1651** A.D.

9. Among the midland counties he wandered in disguise for more than a month; at one time the guest of humble foresters, at another hid for a whole day among the branches of an oak tree, while he watched through the leafy screen

---

[1] *David Leslie.*—See p 270, Note 1.

[2] *Dunbar.*—On the coast of East Lothian; nearly 30 miles east of Edinburgh.

[3] *Scone.* — Pronounced *Skoon;* 2¼ miles north of Perth: the site of an ancient abbey and royal palace. There the Kings of Scotland were crowned.

the red-coats of Oliver searching for him. Through many dangers he at last reached Shoreham[1] in Sussex, where he found a coal-boat, and was landed safely at Fécamp[2] in France. Scotland, thus united to the Commonwealth, was placed under the charge of General Monk.

10. A **naval war** with Holland began in 1652. The Dutch having shown an inclination to sympathize with the House of Stewart—with which the House of Orange was allied by marriage—the English Parliament in 1651 passed the **Navigation Act**, which prohibited foreign ships from trading with England. This was a heavy blow to the Dutch shipping trade, and a war for the empire of the sea ensued.

11. The Dutch admirals were Tromp[3] and De Ruyter.[4] To them was opposed the English Blake, formerly a colonel, now an admiral. After several indecisive engagements, the superior numbers of the Dutch forced Blake to retire; whereupon Tromp traversed the Channel with a broom at his mast-head, to indicate that he was sweeping the English from their own seas. Early in 1653, however, Blake defeated Tromp off Portland, and destroyed eleven ships.

12. The Dutch then sought peace; but the Parliament, dreading the ambitious schemes of Oliver, refused to terminate the war; for it was only by keeping up the victorious navy that they could hope to hold the army in check. Oliver then resolved on a decided step. He urged his officers to present a petition for pay still due to them. The Parliament angrily declared that such petitions should henceforward be considered treasonable, and began to prepare a Bill to that effect. Cromwell marched down to the House with three hundred musketeers, left them outside, and, entering, took his seat.

13. The debate went on, and he soon rose to speak. He charged the Parliament with oppression and profanity; and,

[1] *Shoreham.*—About 6 miles west of Brighton.

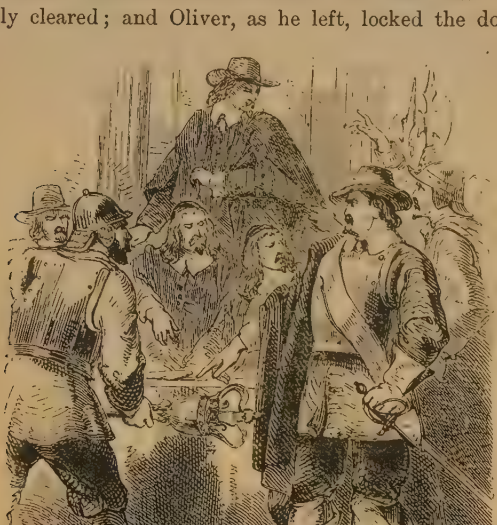
[2] *Fécamp.*—On the English Channel, 21 miles north-east of Havre.

[3] *Tromp.*—Marten Tromp, a famous Dutch admiral; born 1597; killed 1653, off the island of Texel, in an engagement with the English fleet under General Monk. He is not to be confounded with his son Cornelius van Tromp, also a celebrated admiral. In 1675 the latter visited England, and was made a Baron by Charles II. Born 1629; died 1691.

[4] *De Ruyter.*—Pronounced *De Roi'ter.* Michael Adrian Ruyter, a celebrated Dutch admiral; born 1607; killed 1676, in an engagement with the French off Sicily.

when some members rose to reply, he strode up and down with his hat on, hurling reproaches at them. "Get you gone," cried he, "and give way to honester men!" He stamped on the floor: the musketeers poured in. "Take away that bauble!" said he, pointing to the mace which lay on the table. Resistance was useless. The Hall was speedily cleared; and Oliver, as he left, locked the door and

April 20, 1653 A.D.



CROMWELL EXPELLING THE LONG PARLIAMENT.

carried off the key. This was the **expulsion of the Long Parliament.**

14. An Assembly of about 140 members, selected from the warmest supporters of Oliver, then met instead of a Parliament. Its enemies called it Barebone's Parliament, after Barebone, a leather-seller, who took a prominent part in its proceed-

ings. It was soon dissolved, and then all power centred in Cromwell.

15. *OLIVER, PROTECTOR.*—Created **Lord Protector** by a document called *The Instrument of Government*, Cromwell was now practically Sovereign of England. He was declared head of the army and the navy. A legal Parliament was called in his name. Freedom of religion was proclaimed. His intention seems to have been to rule the country in the old constitutional way, through the Parliament; but his first House of Commons quarrelled with him on the subject of supplies, and was dissolved in anger before a single Act was passed. Eighteen months elapsed before he called his second Parliament.

16. The decisive battle in the Dutch War was fought off the Island of Texel, in 1653, when the English were victorious and Tromp was killed. Nevertheless the war continued until April 1654, when a peace favourable to England was concluded. One condition of the treaty was, that the young King Charles should be driven from the Dutch dominions. This triumph was only a part of that foreign policy which made the name of Oliver famous. The glory of England, which had grown dim during the two preceding reigns, now shone with a lustre brighter than ever. The Barbary[1] pirates, long the pest of the Mediterranean, vanished before the English cruisers. Spain, humbled by land and by sea, yielded up in 1655 the rich island of **Jamaica.**[2] The Protestants of Languedoc[3] and the Alps lived, under the shadow

July 31, 1653 A.D.

[1] *Barbary.*—The general name for the north of Africa between Egypt and the Atlantic. It includes Algeria, Morocco, Fez, Tunis, and Tripoli. Piratical states were founded on the coast early in the sixteenth century. Their chief was the Dey of Algiers, who was nominally subject to Turkey. Admiral Blake alarmed the pirates into submission in 1655. Piracy was resumed, however, and continued till the beginning of the present century. In 1816 Algiers was bombarded by a British fleet. In 1830 it was taken by the French, who have ever since retained it. Algeria was formally annexed to France in 1842.

[2] *Jamaica.*—The chief of the British West India Islands. It was discovered by Columbus in 1494, and was taken from the Spaniards by Admirals Penn and Venables in 1655. The slave-trade was abolished in 1807: the slaves were emancipated in 1834, £20,000,000 being paid in compensation to the slaveholders.

[3] *Languedoc.*—An old province in the south of France, having Toulouse as its capital. It derived its name from the *Langue d'oc*, the dialect used by the Troubadours, or poets, in southern France; that of northern France, employed by the Trouveres, being called *Langue d'oil*. The distinction was, that

of Oliver's favour, in peace and safety long unknown to them. Mazarin, the skilful minister of France, sought his friendship; and Dunkirk,[1] a Flemish fortress taken from the Spaniards by Marshal Turenne, was surrendered by France to England. Admiral Blake, by victories at Teneriffe[2] (1657) and elsewhere, broke the power of Spain, and made the name of England famous on the seas.

17. At home Oliver encountered many troubles. He was obeyed only through the fear with which his unconquered army was everywhere regarded. In the flush of his foreign victories he ventured to call a second House of Commons (1656). He obtained power next year to frame a new House of Lords; but in this he failed. The ancient peers of England refused to take their places in it; and he was therefore compelled to fill the benches of his Upper House with men of inferior birth, who had fought their way up from the ranks.

18. His second House of Commons—meeting in September 1656—proposed that he should take the title of King; but Oliver rested content with acquiring the right to name his successor, and, as might have been expected, he named his son. He was installed a second time, when he received a Bible, a sword, and a sceptre. He then required the Commons to acknowledge his newly-created peers; but he was met with a distinct refusal. Thereupon he dissolved his second Parliament, and during his remaining days he ruled alone.

19. These last days were dark and cloudy. One plot arose after another to mar his peace. A book called *Killing no Murder*, in which the author, Colonel Titus, boldly advised his assassination, filled him with ceaseless fears. He carried pistols, and wore a shirt of mail under his clothes. His strength began to fail; the death of a favourite daughter fell heavily

---

in the one the word for "yes" was *oc*, in the other *oil*, which has passed into the modern French *oui*. The Protestants of Languedoc were called *Albigenses* (from the town *Albiga*). They were cruelly attacked by Simon de Montfort (father of the English Earl of Leicester, 1258–1265), between 1207 and 1229, when they were completely subdued, and many of them put to death

[1] *Dunkirk.*—On the French coast; 25 miles north-east of Calais, and 45 east of Dover.

[2] *Teneriffe.*—The largest of the Canary Islands, in the Atlantic, 60 miles from the west coast of North Africa. It contains the famous volcanic mountain, the Peak of Teneriffe, 12,182 feet high. (See *Above the Clouds*, Royal Reader No. V., p. 13.)

on his heart; and he died of ague on the 3rd of September 1658,—the anniversary of Dunbar and Worcester, and the day which he had always considered the brightest in the year.

1658 A.D.

20. *RICHARD, PROTECTOR.*—His son **Richard**, a timid, modest man, quietly succeeded to the office of Protector. But the soldiers, missing their great chief, grew mutinous. The Council of officers forced Richard to dissolve the Parliament which he had called. They recalled the Rump, or remainder of the Long Parliament, expelled in 1653. Richard then resigned the Protectorship, which he had held for only eight months (May 13, 1659). Retiring to his farms at Cheshunt, near Hertford, he lived the peaceful life of a country gentleman until 1712, when he died in the eighty-sixth year of his age.[1]

1659 A.D.

QUESTIONS.—1. On the death of Charles I. what kind of government was established? How long did the new form last? In what was the government vested? Who was the President of the Council? Who was the Foreign Secretary? Who directed the army? What post was occupied by Sir Harry Vane? Who were in reality the rulers of the nation? How was the Duke of Hamilton treated? Who were executed along with him?

2. What three great difficulties then met Cromwell? Who were the Levellers? How were they treated by Cromwell?

3. Who was the leader of the Irish Royalists? What three cities were the only strongholds of the Parliament? Who was appointed, by the Parliament, Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland? With what force did he land there?

4. What was the chief operation of the war? Name two other towns which suffered heavily. Who were left in charge of the conquered island? How was Cromwell received on his return to England? What title did he receive from the Parliament?

5. How had the Scottish nation acted on the death of Charles I.? What was the issue of the expedition of the Marquis of Montrose? Where did Charles II. land in Scotland? What was the date of his landing?

6. How were the forces of Cromwell met by the Scots? Who was the leader of the Scottish army?

7 Where was the decisive battle fought? The date of this battle?

---

[1] Among many sects which sprang from the Puritan body, the Baptists and the Quakers, or the Society of Friends, deserve notice. The Baptists, or Anabaptists—a much milder sect in England than the fierce German reformers of that name—arose in the reign of Henry VIII. Some of Cromwell's principal officers were of that persuasion. The name Quakers is said to have been given to the sect by an English judge whom Fox had admonished to "*quake* at the word of the Lord." The founder of the Friends was George Fox of Drayton in Leicestershire, by trade a shoemaker, but occupied chiefly in teaching the Scriptures. He was more than once put in the stocks and imprisoned for preaching. The Friends are remarkable for their simple manners and industrious lives. They differ from other Protestants in dress, in some forms of speech, and in their mode of public worship.

What mistake on the part of the Scots gave the victory to Cromwell? What important cities immediately submitted to Cromwell?

8. When was Charles II. crowned in Scotland? What document did he sign? What movement did Cromwell make? What did the Scots immediately do? Where did Cromwell overtake and defeat them? What name did Cromwell apply to the victory? What was the date of this battle?

9. Give a narrative of the subsequent adventures of the King before his arrival in France. Where did he embark? Under whom was Scotland placed?

10. What war ensued? What Act led to the war? Why was that Act passed? What was its effect?

11. Who were the Dutch admirals? What English admiral was opposed to them? What forced Blake to retire? What victory was gained by the English in 1653?

12. Why did the Parliament refuse to terminate the war? What decisive step was resolved on by Cromwell?

13. Give a description of the expulsion of the Long Parliament. What was the date of this event?

14. What Assembly succeeded the Long Parliament? By what nickname was it known? On its dissolution, in whom did the supreme power centre?

15. Under what title did Cromwell conduct his government? What document created the office? What plan of government does he seem to have formed? What thwarted his scheme? What time elapsed before his second Parliament was called?

16. When and where was the decisive action in the Dutch War fought? When was the war brought to an end? Mention an important condition of the treaty of peace. For what was the foreign policy of Cromwell remarkable? What conquest was made in 1655? Mention other important successes of the English arms and policy abroad. What French fortress was ceded to England, and by whom? Name a signal victory of Blake?

17 What was the principal support of Cromwell at home? What was the result of his attempt to restore the House of Lords? Whom did he place on its benches?

18. What proposal was made by his second House of Commons? What right did he content himself with? Whom did he name as his successor? Describe his installation. Why did he dissolve the Commons?

19. What troubles clouded Cromwell's closing days? When did his death occur? Why was the day a remarkable coincidence?

20. Who succeeded to the Protectorate? With what difficulty did he meet? What Parliament was recalled? What step did Richard then take? How long had he been Protector? How did he spend the rest of his days? When did he die?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. **1657.**—Poland was obliged to acknowledge the independence of Prussia under Frederick-William, the Great Elector.

2. **1659.**—Louis XIV. of France married Maria-Theresa, the daughter of Philip IV. of Spain. Louis at the same time renounced, for himself and his successors, all claim to the Spanish throne. (See 1700, p. 354.)

3. **1660.**—Sweden gained from Poland most of Livonia (Russia); and annexed all Denmark, except Jutland and the islands.

QUESTIONS.—1. When did Prussia become independent? Under what ruler was it then?—2. Whom did Louis XIV. of France marry? When? What did Louis at the same time renounce?—3. What new territories did Sweden acquire in 1660? From whom was Livonia taken?

CHAPTER XVII.

THE RESTORATION OF MONARCHY.

1. A Year of Anarchy.
2. Monk's Policy.
3. The Messenger from Charles.
4. The Breda Declaration.
5. The Restoration.
6. The Earl of Clarendon.
7. Early Acts of the New Regime.
8. The King becomes Absolute.
9. Restoration of Episcopacy.
10. The Corporation Act.
11. The Act of Uniformity, the Conventicle, and the Five Mile Act.
12. Charles's Extravagance and Meanness.
13. The Dutch War.
14. The Plague in London.
15. Its Scenes, and its Effects.
16. The Great Fire.
17. Effects of the Fire.
18. The Rebound from Puritanism.
19. Discontent in Ireland.
20. Archbishop Sharpe.
21. Rullion Green.
22. Fall of Clarendon.

1. The resignation of Protector Richard was followed by **a year of anarchy.** The Parliament had been restored by the army, but now quarrelled with it. Haselrig, one of the famous "Five Members," led the former; and Lambert, one of Oliver's major-generals, the latter. The Royalists took advantage of these differences to revive their schemes. Royalist risings took place in various parts of England, but Lambert put them down. In October, Lambert expelled the Parliament. Monk, who was in Scotland, then marched into England, intending to restore the Parliament. He had reached York in December when riots occurred in London, and the Parliament was reïnstated.

2. At York, Monk was joined by Fairfax, who made no secret of his Royalist leanings. In February, Monk entered London at the head of 5,000 men. The people waited with trembling anxiety to know his resolve, and great was their joy when he declared for **a free Parliament.** The Presbyterian members, who had been expelled by Colonel Pride (1648), returned to their seats in the Long Parliament, and that famous body, after appointing a new Parliament to meet, finally dissolved itself.

1660 A.D.

3. The new Parliament, composed chiefly of Cavaliers and Presbyterians, met on April 25. The Lords also returned to their places in the Upper House. This body should be called a **Convention** rather than a Parliament, since it was not convoked by a King. It was clearly seen

1660 A.D.

that the hearts of both Parliament and people were leaning towards their exiled Sovereign; and when Monk announced in the Parliament, on May 1, that **a messenger from Charles** was waiting for admission, the news was received with joyful shouts.

4. The King's messenger, Sir John Grenville, brought with him letters from Charles to both Houses of Parliament, accompanied by the **Declaration from Breda.**[1] In the latter document Charles offered, in the event of his being recalled, a general amnesty, with no exceptions but those which Parliament might make; liberty of conscience to all; settlement by Parliament of questions affecting grants and purchases of land; payment of arrears to Monk's army, and its retention in the King's service. An invitation was at once despatched to Charles in Holland. He was proclaimed King at the gate of Westminster Hall, May 8.

5. *CHARLES II.*[2]—The fleet at once sailed to Holland to bring Charles to his kingdom. On May 25 he landed at Dover, and he made his public entry into London on his birthday. Never had there been such joy in England. Flowers strewed the road; bells rang merrily; and old Cavaliers, who had fought at Edgehill and at Naseby, wept for joy. On Blackheath[3] stood Oliver's army, sad and angry, but conscious that its members were no longer united. No tumult marred the joy of the **Restoration,** as the great event was called.

May 29, **1660** A.D.

6. Edward Hyde, afterwards **Earl of Clarendon,** returned with the King from exile. He was made Lord Chancellor, and soon became closely connected with the Royal Family by the marriage of his daughter, Anne Hyde, to James, Duke of York.[4]

7. Among the early acts of Charles were the abolition of the last relict of the Feudal System,[5]—the tenure of lands by knight

---

[1] *Breda.*—A fortified town in Holland, near the Belgian frontier, and 28 miles north-east of Antwerp. There Charles was residing at the time of his recall.

[2] *Charles II.*—Son of Charles I. Married Catherine of Portugal. Reigned 25 years.

[3] *Blackheath.*—An extensive common in Kent, 5 miles south-east of London.

[4] *James, Duke of York.*—Afterwards King James II.

[5] *The Feudal System.*—The system under which the rent of land was paid, not in money, but by military service, rendered to the superior. (See p. 86.)

service, with all its abuses of fines and wardship; and the disbanding of Cromwell's soldiers, all of whom quietly settled down to their former occupations. Few of the men who had been concerned in the execution of Charles I. suffered death. The Marquis of Argyle, a leader of the Scottish Presbyterians, was executed, although he had placed the crown on the King's head at Scone. The bodies of Cromwell, Ireton his son-in-law, and Bradshaw, were taken from their graves and hanged on gibbets. A general pardon was granted to all who had favoured Oliver's government; but Vane, Lambert, and Haselrig[1] were committed to the Tower. Monk was rewarded with the title of Duke of Albemarle.

8. So great was the joy of the Restoration, that no care was taken to prevent Charles from seizing **absolute power.** His first Parliament granted him, for life, taxes amounting to £1,200,000 a year; and a part of this money he devoted to the support of some regiments, then called Gentlemen of the Guard, but now termed Life Guards. These formed the nucleus of a standing army, ever since maintained.

9. **Ecclesiastical affairs** were in great confusion. The *Triers*, who had been appointed by Oliver to grant license for preaching, had filled the parish pulpits with Independent and Presbyterian ministers. Charles and Clarendon were bent on allowing no form of worship but Episcopacy. The Presbyterians were greatly alarmed. They had the hand-writing of the King to prove his promise that the Covenant should be respected; yet the Parliament, with the King's approval, ordered the Covenant to be burned by the common hangman.

1661 A.D.

10. The Pensionary Parliament,[2] which met in May, granted a "benevolence," or a "free and voluntary present to his Majesty." It also passed the **Corporation Act,** which required all magistrates and officers of corporations to communicate in the Episcopal Church, to renounce the Covenant, and to

[1] *Vane, Lambert, and Haselrig.*—Haselrig died in the Tower in 1661 Vane and Lambert were tried in 1662. Vane was executed. Lambert was spared, but he was imprisoned in Guernsey for life.

[2] *Pensionary Parliament.*—So called because so many of its members accepted bribes both from Charles and from Louis XIV. of France. It lasted, with several long prorogations, till January 1679.

take the oath of non-resistance. Many Nonconformists were thrown into prison, one of the earliest victims being John Bunyan, the author of *The Pilgrim's Progress*, who spent the next twelve years in Bedford jail.

11. An **Act of Uniformity** was passed in the following year, requiring that all ministers should be ordained by bishops, should take the oath of non-resistance to the King, and should use the Book of Common Prayer. **1662** A.D. More than a thousand ministers, of whom Richard Baxter was one, preferred to quit their livings rather than to obey. Heavy penalties were inflicted on Dissenters. A similar policy in Scotland, directed by Archbishop Sharpe, expelled four hundred Presbyterian ministers, and led to field-meetings or conventicles being held. Two years later the **Conventicle Act** was passed, inflicting penalties on all persons above sixteen years of age who attended private meetings of the Nonconformists. **1664** A.D. One year later came the **Five Mile Act,** and then the Clarendon Code[1] was complete. The last named Act prohibited ministers, who refused to take the oath of non-resistance, from going within five miles of a corporate town, and from acting as schoolmasters.

12. The extravagant habits and dissolute life of the King kept him in constant want of money; and he lost no opportunity of filling his purse. With his wife, Catherine of Portugal, he received a dowry of half a million, besides two fortresses, Tangier[2] in Morocco, and Bombay in Hindustan. Dunkirk, acquired by the great Oliver, he sold to the French King for half a million sterling (1662). He also plunged into a war with Holland, for which no other cause can be assigned than that he wished to have command of the supplies voted for the purpose of carrying it on.

13. This **Dutch War** opened well, but closed ignobly. During the first year a great naval victory was gained off the Suf-

[1] *The Clarendon Code.* — After the Earl of Clarendon, the Corporation, Uniformity, Conventicle, and Five Mile Acts are generally called the Clarendon Code.

[2] *Tangier.* — A city of Phoenician origin, to the east of Cape Spartel, in the north-west of Africa. The English found it at once so useless and so expensive to maintain, that they very soon abandoned it to the Moors, who at once set about repairing the works, which the English had dismantled on their departure.

folk coast, near Lowestoft,[1] by an English fleet under the Duke of York. But the money voted by Parliament
1665 A.D. for the war was squandered by the King in his wicked pleasures; and ships leaky and badly rigged were sent out to contend with the splendid fleets of Holland. Then came on England a humiliation such as she had never before—has never since—endured: "The roar of
June, 1667 A.D. foreign guns was heard for the first and last time by the citizens of London." A Dutch fleet, under De Ruyter, destroyed Sheerness,[2] burned the ships lying off Chatham, and sailed up the Thames as far as to Tilbury Fort.[3] Happily for London, the Dutch admiral, retiring with the ebb-tide, rested content with having thus insulted the great Mistress of the Sea. Peace was concluded about a week later.

14. The summer of 1665 was a deadly season in London. The **Plague** fell on the city. The rich fled in terror
1665 A.D. to their country-houses; but many were stricken down even there. The poor perished in thousands. Grass grew in London streets. The silence of death reigned everywhere, broken only by the rumbling wheels of the dead-cart as it went its rounds.

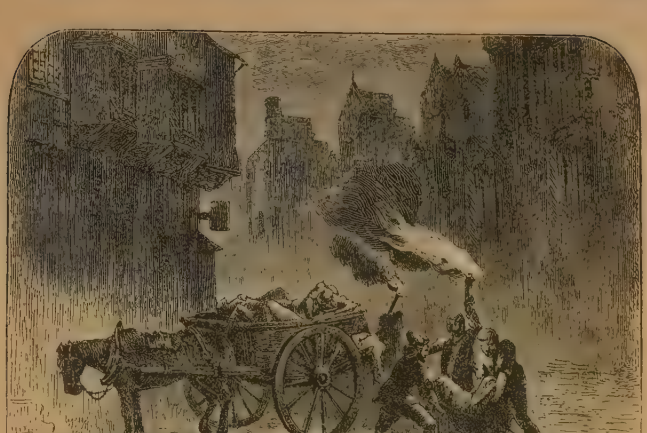
15. The plague-stricken dwellings were shut up and marked with a red cross: the words, "Lord, have mercy on us," might often have been read there too. Into these none would venture except a few faithful ministers and physicians, who moved and breathed amid the tainted air as if they bore a charmed life. Many sought to drown their fears in scenes of riot and drunkenness. More than one hundred thousand persons perished.

16. In the following year the **Great Fire** of London broke

[1] *Lowestoft.*—Twenty miles south-east of Norwich. *Lowestoft Ness* is the most easterly land in England.

[2] *Sheerness.*—A sea-port and naval arsenal on the Island of Sheppey in Kent; 11 miles north-east of Chatham, and 40 miles from London. At Sheerness the mutiny of the Nore (as the estuary of the Thames off Sheerness is called) broke out in 1798.

[3] *Tilbury Fort.*—On the left bank of the Thames, opposite Gravesend, and 20 miles from London. There Queen Elizabeth was said to have reviewed and harangued her troops on the approach of the Spanish Armada; but it has been ascertained that the event did not take place till ten days after the Armada had been scattered. (See *Map*, p. 349.)



THE PLAGUE IN LONDON.

out, on Sunday the 2nd of September. The origin of the fire has never been ascertained; but it is generally believed to have been quite accidental. It began in the east end of the city. The wind was high, and the flames spread fast among the old wooden houses. The city from the Tower to the Temple continued to burn for a whole week; and the red glare in the sky is said to have been seen from the Cheviot Hills.[1] Eighty-nine churches and more than thirteen thousand houses lay in ashes. Old St. Paul's was burned; but on the ruins the distinguished architect Wren[2] reared that magnificent dome which rises high above the smoky roofs of London. **1666** A.D.

17. This great conflagration purified the city from the dregs

[1] *The Cheviot Hills.*—300 miles off.

[2] *Wren.*—Sir Christopher Wren, astronomer and architect; born 1632; died 1723. In 1660 he became Professor of Astronomy at Oxford. In 1666 he was chosen architect for new St. Paul's, which was begun in 1675, and completed in 1710. Wren was also the architect of the Royal Observatory at Greenwich, of Chelsea Hospital, and of many churches and other public buildings in London.

of the plague, still lurking in narrow lanes and filthy rooms; and many spots, dark and close for centuries, were once more blessed with the sweet light and air of heaven. New houses and wide streets sprang up; and, as a natural result, the public health rapidly improved. The Monument,—a tall pillar in the City of London,—still exists to commemorate the Great Fire.

THE MONUMENT.

18. Under the Puritans, sculpture and painting had been almost banished from the land, from a fear that they might encourage idolatry. Then, too, all public amusements, especially theatrical performances and the cruel sport of bear-baiting, were forbidden. Even innocent sports, such as those around the May pole and by the Christmas fire, were sternly put down. The nation, released at the Restoration from such restrictions, plunged wildly into the opposite extreme. The King lived a life of indolence and profligacy, and spent most of his time in the society of witty but profligate companions, whose influence affected the politics of the day to no small extent. Licentiousness spread everywhere. Members of Parliament sold their votes. The prevailing immorality is reflected in the literature of the time, especially in its plays. The power of the clergy was by no means effective in stemming the torrent of wickedness.

19. In **Ireland** the English and the Celts were still at war, the subject of strife being the division of the land. Under Henry Cromwell, son of the Protector, who had ruled the island as Lord-Lieutenant, Puritan colonists had held the lots

apportioned to them by the victorious Oliver. Charles resolved to restore to the Roman Catholics part of the territory taken from them. This, however, did not mend matters; for some thousands received little or no compensation, and left for France and Spain, exclaiming loudly against the injustice of the English King.

20. Those were dark days for **Scotland.** The King and the Earl of Clarendon, as already mentioned, had resolved to uproot Presbyterianism, and firmly to establish Episcopacy in that land. They found an able and zealous instrument in **James Sharpe,** minister of Crail in Fife; who, having been sent to London by the Presbyterians to look after their interests, became an Episcopalian, and was made Archbishop of St. Andrews. Nine other Scottish Presbyterians followed Sharpe's example, and received the mitre.

21. The Earl of Lauderdale, once a Presbyterian like Sharpe, was made Chief Commissioner. Fines, laid on those who refused to attend the Episcopal worship, were levied by military force, and soldiers were quartered on the unhappy people until the uttermost farthing was paid. A rising took place among the peasantry of Kirkcudbright,[1] and about a thousand men marched to Edinburgh; but they were defeated by General Dalziel at **Rullion Green,**[2] near the Pentland Hills. Many executions followed, and torture was frequently resorted to, one of the most terrible instruments being the infamous "boot." Open air **conventicles,** to which the worshippers went, not with their Bibles only, but with sword and pistol also, were held in various parts of the country by determined men.

Nov. 1666 A.D.

22. Lord Chancellor **Clarendon** lost the friendship of the King, whose mind was poisoned against him by worthless favourites. His enemies charged him at the bar of the Lords with high treason; but, on a hint from his son-in-law, the Duke of York, he fled to France,[3] where he spent the remainder of his days.

1667 A.D.

[1] *Kirkcudbright.*—Pron. *Kirkoo'bray*; a county in the south of Scotland.

[2] *Rullion Green.* — About 5 miles south-west of Edinburgh.

[3] *France.*—He spent his last years in completing his great *History of the Rebellion.* His death took place at Rouen in 1674.

QUESTIONS.—1. By what was the resignation of Protector Richard followed? With what did Parliament quarrel? Who led the Parliament? Who led the army? Who took advantage of these differences? What step did Lambert take in October? Who was preparing to restore it? How and when was it restored?

2. Who joined Monk at York? When did Monk enter London? What gave general joy? What Parliament was restored? What steps did it take?

3. Of whom was the new Parliament chiefly composed? Why should it be called a Convention? What was the manifest leaning of Parliament and people? What announcement did Monk make on May 1? How was it received?

4. Who was the King's messenger? What important document did he deliver? What did Charles offer in this document? What was at once sent to him? When was he proclaimed King?

5. How was Charles conveyed to England? When did he enter London? How was he received? What stood on Blackheath? What is the event called?

6. Who was made Lord Chancellor? By what marriage had he become closely connected with the Royal Family?

7. What were some of the early acts of Charles the Second's reign? What was the fate of the Marquis of Argyle? How were the bodies of Cromwell, Ireton, and Bradshaw treated? Who were committed to the Tower? With what title was General Monk rewarded?

8. What grant was made to Charles by his first Parliament? How did he provide for the support of his authority?

9. In what state were ecclesiastical affairs? Who occupied the parish pulpits? On what were Charles and Clarendon bent? Who were alarmed? What promise had Charles made? How was contempt shown for the Covenant?

10. What is the Parliament called which met in May? What did it grant the King? What famous Act did it pass? What did that Act require? Who were thrown into prison? Who was one of the earliest victims? How long was he kept there?

11. What Act was passed in the following year? What did it require? How many Nonconformists left their livings in consequence? Who was among them? Who directed a similar policy in Scotland? What Act was passed to prevent private meetings of Nonconformists? In what year? What was the last Act of the Clarendon Code? What did it prohibit?

12. What kept the King in constant want of money? Whom did he marry? What dowry did he receive? What fortress was sold by him to the French? Into what war did he plunge? For what purpose, apparently?

13. How was the war with Holland conducted? Name a victory gained by the Duke of York. In what condition was the English fleet sent out? To what unprecedented humiliation was England subjected? What was the date of this event? When was peace concluded?

14. What terrible calamity occurred in 1665? What did the rich do?

15. What marked the infected dwellings? What was the estimated mortality?

16. What event distinguished the following year? On what day did the fire break out? Where did it begin? How long did it last? What was the extent of the ruin?

17 What beneficial results followed this fire? Who was the architect of St. Paul's Cathedral? What monument of the Great Fire still remains?

18. What restrictions had the Puritans placed on amusements? What ensued when the bonds were relaxed? What was the condition of the Court? The Parliament? Literature?

19. What was now the subject of strife in Ireland? To whom had lands been assigned by Cromwell? What change did Charles propose to make? State the result.

20. What was the policy of Charles towards Scotland? Who was made Archbishop of St. Andrews?

21. Who was made Chief Commissioner? What measures were taken to force Episcopacy on the Scots? When did the rising of the Kirkcudbright

peasantry occur. What battle was fought? What followed? How did the people attend conventicles?

22. How did Lord Clarendon lose the favour of the King? Of what was he accused? Whither did he flee?

CHAPTER XVIII.

THE STRUGGLE RENEWED.

1. Louis XIV.
2. The Pensionary Monarch.
3. The Cabal Ministry.
4. The Dutch War.
5. Charles Closes the Exchequer
6. The Test Act.
7. Frequent Prorogations
8. New Secret Treaty with Louis.
9. The "Popish Plot."
10. The Council of Thirty
11. The Habeas Corpus Act.
12. The Covenanters in Scotland.
13. Murder of Archbishop Sharpe.
14. Battles of Drumclog and Bothwell Bridge.
15. The Cameronians.
16. Whig and Tory.
17. Charles an Absolute Monarch.

1. THE ambition of Louis XIV. of France, which convulsed Europe so long, now began to be attracted by the Netherlands, to which he professed some shadow of a claim through his wife. To preserve the balance of power, England, Sweden, and Holland formed a **Triple Alliance** against the French monarch. The desire to preserve this balance,—that is, to prevent any potentate from acquiring by conquest or by treaty an ascendency which would be dangerous to other States,—has caused most of the recent wars in European history. The Triple Alliance (1668) pleased the English people highly, and Charles became, for once, a great favourite.

1668 A.D.

2. Little, however, did the nation dream how basely it was being tricked, and what foul stains were deepening on kingly honour. While Charles openly professed hostility to Louis, he was secretly in the pay of that monarch, receiving a pension of £200,000 a year! The negotiations between the Courts of England and France were conducted by a handsome Frenchwoman, called by the English Madame Carwell, who soon won the favour of Charles, and was made Duchess of Portsmouth. At Dover was signed **a secret treaty**, of which the principal terms were, that Charles should openly declare himself a Roman Catholic; that he should fight for Louis against the Dutch Republic; and that he should support the claims of that monarch on Spain. Louis on his part promised plenty of money, and an army to quell the English if they dared to rebel.

May 1670 A.D.

3. Five men, the initials of whose names by a curious coincidence form the word **Cabal**,[1] then became the chief advisers of the King. They were Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley,[2] and Lauderdale. So pernicious was their advice, and so strong the hatred of them entertained by the people, that the word "Cabal," which was at first equivalent to "Cabinet," has ever since been used to denote a clique of political schemers.

4. The Dutch War being renewed in 1672, an English fleet put to sea, while Louis crossed the Rhine and ravaged the United Provinces. But the Dutch, acting under the orders of William of Orange, broke down their dikes: the water rushed over the land, and the French fled for their lives. Holland made peace with England in 1674; but hostilities continued with France until a treaty was made at Nimeguen[3] in 1678.

5. One of the most disgraceful acts of Charles was the closing of the **Exchequer** or Treasury. About £1,300,000 had been advanced to the King by the London goldsmiths, and other wealthy merchants, at 8 or 10 per cent. of interest; and for this sum they had the security of the public funds. One day they received a cool message from the King, that their money was not to be repaid, and that they must content themselves with the interest! A general panic ensued. Merchants, unable to meet their engagements, were forced to stop payment. Trade was for a time paralyzed. But all mattered nothing to the "Merry Monarch," who rejoiced in possessing new means of indulging in pleasure.

6. The public feeling against the Roman Catholics was gradually growing stronger. The Duke of York had openly professed his adherence to them; and there was a general suspicion abroad that the King, too, was at heart devoted to his mother's creed. The temper of the Parliament was
1673 shown in the **Test Act**, by which all persons who
A.D. held public appointments were compelled to receive the

[1] *Cabal.*—It was long believed that the word "cabal" was invented from this circumstance; but it was in use before this time, and is known to be of much older date. It means a secret conclave, and is derived from the *Cabala*, or magical traditions, which were handed down among the Jews from the earliest times.

[2] *Ashley.*—Anthony Ashley Cooper, Lord Ashley, and afterwards Earl of Shaftesbury.

[3] *Nimeguen.*—In Holland, 60 miles east of Rotterdam.

Sacrament of the Lord's Supper according to the usage of the Church of England, and to take an oath against transubstantiation. This law excluded all Roman Catholics from office. The Duke of York was superseded in the command of the fleet by Prince Rupert.

7. The Pensionary Parliament had now been in existence for thirteen years. There had been frequent disputes between the two Houses, and the King had made these differences the excuse for prorogation on several occasions. These **frequent prorogations** offended the Opposition, which grew bolder as the King's leanings to absolutism became more evident.

Early in 1674 the Cabal Ministry was driven from office by a vote of Parliament; and Viscount Latimer, afterwards Earl of Danby, became Prime Minister. Shaftesbury, who had been removed from the Chancellorship some months previously, became leader of the Opposition, and began to intrigue for the exclusion of the Duke of York from the succession, and in favour of the Duke of Monmouth.[1]

1674 A.D.

8. An attempt to impeach Danby, who had counselled severe measures against the Nonconformists, broke down early in 1675. Then came a new quarrel between the two Houses. The Parliament was prorogued, and did not meet again for fifteen months. During that interval the King made a **new secret treaty** with Louis of France, under which he received a large pension from that monarch. When the Parliament reassembled in 1677, Shaftesbury and other members of the Opposition maintained that the long prorogation was equivalent to a dissolution. They were committed to the Tower; and Shaftesbury was not released until, on his knees, he had asked the pardon of the House of Lords.

9. Then Titus Oates, a clergyman disgraced for vicious habits, came forward with the story of a "**Popish Plot**" to assassinate the King and to massacre all Protestants. Other false witnesses (for so they proved) confirmed his tale. Shaftesbury and his friends eagerly professed their belief in the plot. Papers found in the rooms of Edward Coleman, secretary to the Duchess of York, seemed to afford additional evidence of

[1] *Duke of Monmouth.*—An illegitimate son of Charles.

a plot. The dead body of Sir Edmondsbury Godfrey, the magistrate before whom Oates had sworn to the conspiracy, was found in a field near London, pierced with his own sword.

1678 A.D. All England went mad with fear. London was in a state of siege. It was an English Reign of Terror, and many Roman Catholics were unjustly put to death. Titus Oates was rewarded with a pension of £1,200 a year, and rooms were assigned to him in Whitehall. Encouraged by his success, new perjurers, such as Bedloe and Dangerfield,[1] poured from the gambling-houses and drinking-dens of London. Execution followed execution. The noblest of the victims was William Howard, Viscount Stafford, whose gray hairs could not save him from an unmerited death.

10. Danby's fall was hastened by the discovery of a letter in which he craved money from the French King, not for himself, but for Charles. The latter tried to save him by a dissolution. He then granted Danby a free pardon; but the new Parliament (April 1679) declared that step illegal, and Danby was sent to the Tower, where he remained for five years. Sir William Temple[2] then became the confidant of Charles. His favourite scheme was the appointment of a **Council of Thirty,** to stand between the King and the Parliament. Of this Council, Shaftesbury was president, and the Earls of Sunderland and Halifax were leading members; but the plan did not work well.

11. The Parliament of 1679 lasted only four months, but its

May 26, 1679 A.D. determined temper was shown in the passing of the **Habeas Corpus**[3] **Act,** one of the great bulwarks of English freedom. Indeed, it is second in importance only to Magna Charta.[4] *It secures the liberty of the*

[1] *Dangerfield.*—His plot was called the *Meal-tub* Plot, from the place where the papers were alleged to have been found.

[2] *Temple.*—He was a great diplomatist. By him the Triple Alliance of 1668 was negotiated; and he arranged the marriage of the Princess Mary with William of Orange, afterwards William III. He is well known in literature as the author of Essays on *The Netherlands,* on *Government,* on *Learning,* and on *Gardening.* He was born 1628; died 1699.

[3] *Habeas Corpus.*—A writ addressed to the custodier of a prisoner, requiring him to produce him for trial at a certain time. It is so called from the opening Latin words of the writ—*Habeas corpus, ad faciendum, subjiciendum, et recipiendum,* &c.: "Thou art to produce the body, to do, submit, and receive what the court shall order," &c.

[4] *Magna Charta.*—1215 A.D.

subject. Former Sovereigns had, without remorse, left their enemies to pine and waste for long years in damp, unwholesome prisons. Mary Queen of Scots had lain for eighteen years in English dungeons, when, crippled by rheumatism and bowed by premature old age, she was led to the scaffold. Sir Walter Ralegh had lain for thirteen years, and Archbishop Laud for four, in a solitary cell. But, by the Habeas Corpus Act, no Sovereign dare keep even the meanest subject in prison beyond a certain time, without bringing him to a fair trial; and no prisoner once discharged can be recommitted for the same offence. At this time the Press of England received liberty for a short period.

12. In Scotland the **Covenanters** still suffered great hardships. Lauderdale, now a Duke, presided at the Council-table. A Highland host, numbering 8,000 men, was quartered on the Lowland farmers, and was permitted to plunder and oppress without mercy. No man could leave Scotland without special permission from the Council. These and worse grievances were for a long time quietly borne, but at length the suffering people were goaded to madness.

13. One of the first signs of the frenzy was the **murder of Archbishop Sharpe** on Magus Moor,[1] near St. Andrews. A party of twelve, among whom was Balfour of Burleigh, while lying in wait on the moor for another victim, saw the coach of Sharpe approaching. Taking a sudden and desperate resolve, they dragged him from his seat and slew him before his daughter's eyes.

14. A rising at once ensued, and at **Drumclog,**[2] Graham of Claverhouse and his dragoons—long the terror of conventicles—were scattered in flight before the stern Covenanters. Four thousand men were soon in arms under a man named Hamilton, and took post at **Bothwell Bridge,**[3] to defend the passage of the Clyde. The Duke of Monmouth was sent hastily from London, and advanced to the attack. But there was disunion on religious and political

June 1, 1679 A.D.

[1] *Magus Moor.*—Three miles south-west of St. Andrews, Fifeshire.

[2] *Drumclog.*—In the west of Lanarkshire, 15 miles south of Glasgow

[3] *Bothwell Bridge.*—A bridge on the Clyde in Lanarkshire, 9 miles south-east of Glasgow, and 2 from Hamilton The bridge was only 12 feet wide.

questions in the Covenanting army; and the handful of men that held the bridge, being left without support, were soon swept away. Three hundred Covenanters died on the field; twelve hundred surrendered. Of these, some were executed, others were transported to Barbadoes.[1]

15. Hitherto the people had remained unshaken in their loyalty; but now that began to give way. A party, called **Cameronians,**[2] boldly threw off their allegiance, denounced Charles as a tyrant, and solemnly pronounced against him and his ministers sentence of excommunication. When Lauderdale's place at the Scottish Council was taken by James, Duke of York, he exceeded his predecessor in the severity of his measures against the Covenanters. Many timid hearts yielded an outward obedience; others fled to the American colonies. In these sufferings the Puritans of England had no small share.

16. While the Duke of York was in Scotland, there was a violent agitation for the assembling of Parliament. It was led by Shaftesbury, who a short time previously had been removed from the Council. On his advice, numerous "petitions" were sent to the King by the country party, praying for the calling of Parliament. The court party sent in counter-addresses, expressing "abhorrence" of this interference with the royal

[1] *Barbadoes.*—The most easterly of the West Indies.

[2] *Cameronians.*—So called after their founder, Richard Cameron, who was slain at Aird's Moss (Ayrshire), 22nd July 1680

prerogative. The two parties were therefore known as the Petitioners and the Abhorrers;—names which soon gave place to the more familiar ones, **Whig and Tory.**[1] The Parliament did not meet till October 1680. A Bill to exclude the Duke of York from the succession, on the ground that he was a Roman Catholic, passed the Commons by a majority of seventy-nine votes; but it was thrown out in the Lords, chiefly by means of the powerful speeches of Halifax, and Charles and his brother once more felt secure. **1680** A.D.

17. The Parliament was dissolved in January 1681. The King called a new Parliament at Oxford on March 21, as the excitement in London ran too high. It was a repetition of the Oxford Parliament of 1258. The chief members of the country party, Shaftesbury among them, attended, armed and accompanied by their followers. Charles dissolved the Parliament before it had transacted any business, March 28. This was Charles's last Parliament. He then had recourse to severe measures against his enemies. The Duke of Monmouth was made to pay for his popularity by finding security for his good conduct. His friends were prosecuted and fined. Shaftesbury fled to Holland, where he died in 1683. Charles ruled as **an absolute monarch** till the end of his reign. **1681** A.D.

QUESTIONS. — 1. What was the object of the Triple Alliance? Who formed it? What is the "Balance of Power"? How was the Alliance regarded by the English people?

2. What disgraceful compact with the French King was made by Charles? By whom were the secret negotiations between the two Courts conducted? What title was bestowed on this woman by Charles? What were the principal terms of the Secret Treaty of Dover? When was it signed?

3. Give the names of the five ministers who composed the Cabal.

4. In what year was the Dutch War renewed? Relate what you know of this war. In what year was peace made? Where was the treaty of peace signed?

5. What act of Charles paralyzed trade? Who had lent him money? What did he inform them one day?

6. What state of public feeling was indicated by the passing of the Test Act? When did this occur? Whom did this law exclude from office? Who succeeded him?

7. How long had the Pensionary Parliament now been in existence?

[1] *Whig and Tory.* — The name "*Whig*"—meaning "whey" or sour milk—was originally applied in scorn to the Scottish Covenanters by English Cavaliers. Another explanation derives the name from "Whig, whig," "Get on, get on"—the call used to their horses by peasants in the west of Scotland. "*Tory*"—meaning "Give me"—was originally the name given to Irish freebooters, from the salutation with which they accosted travellers.

What had given the King excuse for frequent prorogations? Who was offended thereby? What effect had the King's leanings to absolutism on the Opposition? How was the Cabal driven from office? Who became Premier? Who led the Opposition?

8. What attempt in 1675 broke down? What followed? How long was it before Parliament met again? What did the King do in the interval? Why were Shaftesbury and others sent to prison in 1677? On what condition was Shaftesbury released?

9. Give an account of the "Popish Plot." Who published the story? What was the character of Oates? What circumstances seemed to confirm the testimony of this infamous man? How was he rewarded? What was the state of public feeling after Oates had come forward with his story of this plot? What venerable nobleman was judicially murdered in consequence?

10. How was Danby's fall hastened? How did Charles try to save him? What did Parliament do when Charles pardoned him? Who then became the confidant of Charles? What was his favourite scheme? Who was president of this Council? Who were leading members of it?

11. How long did the Parliament of 1679 last? In what was its determined temper shown? What is the character of that measure? What does it secure? How?

12. What was the condition of Scotland at this time? Who presided at the Council-table? What was the "Highland host"?

13. Give an account of the murder of Archbishop Sharpe. Where did this occur?

14. Relate the incidents of Drumclog and Bothwell Bridge.

15. What then began to give way? Who were the Cameronians? Who succeeded Lauderdale? How did he treat the Covenanters?

16. What agitation arose while the Duke was in Scotland? Who led it? What form did it take? What names did the two parties receive? What names soon took their place? When did Parliament meet? What then took place?

17. When was the Parliament dissolved? When did a new one meet? Where? What was remarkable about this Parliament? How long did it sit? How did Charles then treat his enemies? Where did Shaftesbury go? How did Charles then rule?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. **1660.**—The Portuguese drove the Dutch out of Brazil, in South America, and secured it permanently for themselves. The first Portuguese colony had been founded there in 1531. The French made several attempts to settle there; but they were expelled in 1567, and again in 1615. The Royal Family of Portugal took refuge in Brazil at the beginning of the Peninsular War (1808). It was constituted a subject kingdom in 1815, and an independent empire under Dom Pedro (son of the King of Portugal) in 1822.

2. **1667.**—The States-General of Holland were induced by De Witt to pass the **Perpetual Edict**, abolishing for ever the office of Stadtholder.

3. **1672.**—A revolution took place in Holland. De Witt and his brother were murdered; and William, the young **Prince of Orange**, was made Stadtholder.

4. **1672.—Louis XIV.** (with the aid of England) attacked Holland:

Austria, Prussia, Spain, and afterwards Sweden, joined the Dutch in a league against him. The English Parliament having refused supplies for the war, Charles II. was forced in 1674 to make a separate peace with Holland. The Dutch, headed by William of Orange, held out bravely, and, opening their sluices, drove the French out of their country. The war was concluded in 1678 by the Peace of Nimeguen, by which France acquired Burgundy, and encroached still further on Elsass (Alsace). In 1681, Louis XIV. confirmed his possession of Elsass by seizing Strasburg suddenly in time of peace.

5. **1674.—John Sobieski,** the great Polish general, was chosen King of Poland. He gained several victories over the Turks, and for a time enlarged the Polish dominions.

6. 1677.—William, Prince of Orange, nephew of Charles II. of England, married his cousin Mary, daughter of James, Duke of York.

7. **1682.—Pennsylvania** was founded by William Penn, a member of the Society of Friends. His conciliatory policy gained him the title of "The Friend of the Indians."

8. **1682.**—Denmark, having formed an alliance with Louis XIV. of France, was confirmed in the possession of Schleswig. (See 1721, p. 376.)

9. **1683.**—The Turks, instigated by Louis XIV. of France, overran Hungary and besieged Vienna, from which the Emperor Leopold I. fled. The Turks were defeated and driven across the frontier by John Sobieski of Poland and the Duke of Lorraine. At the same time the Venetians forced the Turks to relinquish Greece; and a revolt of the Janissaries dethroned the Sultan.

QUESTIONS.—1. When did the Portuguese secure possession of Brazil? Whom did they drive out? When had the Portuguese begun to colonize it? What was the result of the attempts of the French to settle there? Mention the steps which led to its becoming an independent empire.—2. What was the Perpetual Edict? When was it passed?—3. When was it reversed? How? Who was then made Stadtholder?—4. Who joined the Dutch against France? How were the French driven out of Holland? When was the war concluded? How was possession of Elsass confirmed to France?—5. Who became King of Poland in 1674? Over whom did he gain several victories?—6. Whom did William of Orange marry? When?—7. When was Pennsylvania founded? By whom? What title did he gain? Why?—8. With whom did Denmark at this time form an alliance? In what possession was she confirmed?—9. Who besieged Vienna in 1683? Who fled from the city? At whose instigation had they invaded Austria? By whom were the Turks driven back? What other reverses did the Turks suffer at the same time?

CHAPTER XIX.

ABSOLUTE MONARCHY RESTORED.

1. A Conspiracy to Change the Succession.
2. The Rye-House Plot.
3. The Test Act Dispensed with.
4. Death of Charles II.
5. The New King's Promises.
6. The Conspirators in Holland.
7. Argyle's Invasion.
8. Monmouth's Invasion.
9. Advance on Bristol.
10. Battle of Sedgemoor
11. Flight of Monmouth.
12. His Execution.
13. Kirke and Jeffreys.
14. The Bloody Assize.
15. James's Grand Design.
16. Scotland and Ireland.
17. The King and Cambridge.
18. The King and Oxford.

1. The friends of liberty despaired of gaining anything from Charles, or while Charles lived. They expected no more from his brother James, his destined successor. There
1683 was only one way in which the Constitution could be A.D. restored;—that was by changing the succession at Charles's death. With this view a **conspiracy** was formed, to secure the recognition of Monmouth as the legitimate son of Charles. William, Lord Russell, and Algernon Sidney, took a leading share in the plot, which spread its roots far and wide.

2. A set of middle-class men formed, without the knowledge, as it seems, of Monmouth or of Russell, a design to murder the King on his return from Newmarket[1] races. Their plan was to overturn a cart near **the Rye House**, a roadside farm, and then to shoot the King during the stoppage of the coach. Thus there was a plot within a plot. All was soon discovered; the two plots were treated as one, and the vengeance of the King was roused. Monmouth fled to the Continent, Russell and Sidney died on the scaffold. Many of low degree were hanged during this and the following year.

3. On the very day on which Russell was beheaded, the University of Oxford passed a decree declaring the necessity of passive obedience. Encouraged by this declaration, Charles put in operation the penal statutes against all who opposed his measures. Wealthy merchants were heavily fined for what was called sedition. Those who were not worth fining were

[1] *Newmarket.*—In Cambridgeshire; 13 miles north-east of Cambridge, and about 60 from London. The Rye House is in Hertfordshire.

put in the pillory. One of Charles's latest acts was **to dispense with the Test Act,** in order to restore the Duke of York to his office of Lord High Admiral, and to his seat in the Council.

4. Charles died after an illness of less than a week, on 14th February 1685. He had previously declared himself a Roman Catholic, and had received the last rites of the Church from a priest named Huddleston, who was brought to his bedside. Apoplexy, epilepsy, and even poison, were assigned as the causes of his death.[1] 1685 A.D.

5. *JAMES II.*[2]—Quarter of an hour after his brother's death the **Duke of York** took his seat at the Council as King James II. There he declared his resolution to govern according to the laws, and to uphold the Church of England; promises which he repeated in his speech from the throne in May, when he met his Parliament—the first that had met for four years. The King attended a public celebration of the Mass, and was soon after crowned in royal style. Yet the confidence of the nation seemed unshaken, and loyal addresses poured in from every side. The Commons voted him a revenue of £1,900,000, and already he was in the pay of Louis.

6. The conspirators who had fled from England on the detection of the Rye-House Plot had taken refuge in **Holland.** Monmouth and the Earl of Argyle[3] were there, with many of less note; and a meeting took place at Amsterdam, at which it was resolved that Argyle should descend on Scotland, and that Monmouth should about the same time attempt the invasion of England.

7. In May, **Argyle**—known to his clansmen as MacCailean

[1] The Royal Society, founded in 1662, did much for the advancement of science. From the tumults and impostures of the time sprang two words—ever since in common use—Mob and Sham. A penny post was set up in London, in spite of great opposition, by a citizen named William Dockwray. Newspapers, influenced by the rivalry of Whigs and Tories, began to acquire political importance. *The London Gazette* 1665, and *The Observator* 1679, edited by Roger Lestrange, were the organs of the Government.

[2] Son of Charles I. Married (1) Anne Hyde, daughter of the Earl of Clarendon; (2) Mary d'Este of Modena. Reigned 3 years.

[3] *Argyle.* — Son of the Marquis of Argyle who had been executed in 1661 on the charge of having taken part with Cromwell against Charles I.

Mohr—landed on Cantire, and sent forth the fiery cross[1] to summon the Campbells to arms. Scarcely two thousand claymores mustered at the call. With these he moved towards Glasgow; but in Dumbartonshire his little army was scattered, and, while attempting to escape in disguise, he was made prisoner at Inchinnan[2] in Renfrewshire. Some days later he suffered death at Edinburgh, and his head was left to moulder on the walls of the Tolbooth prison (June 30).

8. June was far spent when **Monmouth** with three ships approached the coast of Dorsetshire, and landed at Lyme.[3] Ploughmen and miners flocked in hundreds to join him; farmers came on their heavy cart-horses to fill the ranks of his rude cavalry; but the nobles and gentlemen made no movement in his favour. His hopes rose when he reached Taunton,[4] where he assumed the title of King. Green boughs, worn in his honour, were in every hat; and a band of young girls publicly presented him with a Bible and a richly embroidered flag.

9. Bent on the conquest of **Bristol,** then the second city in the kingdom, he marched to Bridgewater,[5] and even to the walls of Bath.[6] But the train-bands[7] were gathering fast, and his heart was failing him. He fell back. The royal troops and the rebels exchanged shots at Philip's Norton,[8] but the battle which decided the fate of Monmouth was fought within three miles of Bridgewater.

10. There, at **Sedgemoor,**[9] lay an army of 3,000 men under

[1] *The Fiery Cross.*—A cross of yew, having had its extremities kindled and extinguished in blood, was the signal by which clansmen were summoned to arms. A swift messenger ran with it to the nearest hamlet, put it in the hand of the first man he met, and named the place of rendezvous. He who received it was bound to carry it in like manner to the next village, and all between sixteen and sixty who saw it were bound to obey its summons. (See THE ROYAL SCHOOL HISTORY OF SCOTLAND, pp. 247, 291.)

[2] *Inchinnan.*—A ford on the river Cart, 1 mile west of Renfrew.

[3] *Lyme.* — Properly Lyme-Regis, a sea-port at the mouth of the river Lyme in Dorsetshire, 22 miles west of Dorchester.

[4] *Taunton.*—On the Tone in Somersetshire; 22 miles north-west of Lyme.

[5] *Bridgewater.*—Twelve miles north-east of Taunton.

[6] *Bath.*—Thirty-five miles north-east of Bridgewater.

[7] *Train-bands.*—The militia.

[8] *Philip's Norton.*—Six miles south-east of Bath.

[9] *Sedgemoor.*—It lies east of Bridgewater, between that town and King's Weston.

Feversham, a weak and indolent general. Monmouth, hoping to surprise the royal troops in disorder, advanced from Bridgewater in the dead of night. The moor—the ancient hiding-place of Alfred—was then a partly drained swamp, crossed by trenches full of mud and water, called *rhines*. Two of these rhines Monmouth and his soldiers had passed in silence, and they were almost upon the foe, when he found yawning in front of the march a deep, black ditch, the Bussex rhine, of which his guides had not told him.

11. Delay and confusion followed, and a pistol went off by accident. Instantly the royal drums beat to arms; a heavy fire of musketry opened on the rebels from the opposite side of the rhine; the royal cavalry came galloping to the scene of action. Monmouth, conscious that all was lost, took to **flight.** His foot-soldiers fought long and bravely, until, after much delay, the guns of the royal artillery began to play on their ranks; then they broke in disorder and fled, leaving a thousand slain. No battle has been fought on English ground since the day of Sedgemoor. July 6, 1685 A.D.

12. Two days later, Monmouth was found near the New

Forest,[1] lurking in a ditch, with his pockets half full of raw pease. While on his way to London, he wrote an imploring letter to the King; and, when admitted to the royal presence, he lay on the floor and wet the feet of James with his tears. All was useless: he was doomed to immediate **execution**, and suffered death on Tower Hill.[2]

13. The task of punishing the unhappy rebels was intrusted at first to Colonel **Percy Kirke**, who hanged them by scores on the sign-post of the White Hart Inn at Taunton. But the Colonel was outdone in ferocity by Chief-Justice **Jeffreys**, whose name became a proverb for blasphemy and brutality.

14. This man opened at Winchester that circuit known as **the Bloody Assize.** The first case for treason was that of Alice Lisle, the widow of one of Cromwell's lords. She was tried for affording food and shelter to two of the flying rebels. Jeffreys bullied the jury into returning a verdict of "Guilty," and sentenced her to be burned alive. Owing to the intercession of noble friends her sentence was altered to beheading; and she died with calm fortitude in the market-place of Winchester. Through the whole western circuit Jeffreys then passed, revelling in blood. More than three hundred perished in this judicial massacre, and crowds who escaped death were doomed to suffer mutilation, imprisonment, or exile.

15. James then began to unfold his grand design. This design, to which he persistently clung, was the complete **restoration of Roman Catholicism** in Great Britain. Disregarding the Test Act, he gave commissions in the army to Roman Catholics; and when the Parliament dissented, he dismissed it in anger. He released all Roman Catholics from penalties, by means of the dispensing power—a privilege which enabled him to pardon all transgressions of the law, and thus, in effect, to destroy the power of the Parliament. He placed the whole Church under the control of a Court of Ecclesiastical Commission of

1686 A.D.

---

[1] *New Forest.*—In the south-west of Hampshire, between Southampton Water and the Avon. The circumference of the Forest is 50 miles. It was converted into a hunting-ground by William the Conqueror, from whose royal palace at Winchester it was not far distant. There William Rufus was killed in 1100.

[2] *Tower Hill.*—In the east of London.

seven members, presided over by Jeffreys, now Lord Chancellor. He formed a standing army at Hounslow Heath, officered chiefly by Roman Catholic adherents, for the purpose of coercing the nation into submission. For the first time since the reign of Mary, a Papal Nuncio was entertained at Whitehall.

16. The Jesuits resumed vigorous operations in London; and one of their most active men, Father Edward Petre, became the confidential adviser of the King. Scotland was placed under Drummond, Earl of Perth. Tyrconnel was made Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland in room of the Earl of Clarendon, one of the King's brothers-in-law. At the same time his other brother-in-law, the Earl of Rochester, a Protestant, had to resign the white staff which he had borne as Lord-Treasurer of England. **1687** A.D.

17. James then began to meddle with the Universities. A royal letter commanded the Senate of **Cambridge** to admit Alban Francis, a Benedictine monk, to the degree of M.A. The University refused; for no Roman Catholic could take the oaths. The Vice-Chancellor and eight others, among whom was Isaac Newton, the great philosopher, were summoned before the Ecclesiastical Commission; and the Vice-Chancellor lost his office.

18. With Oxford the King attempted still more. To the vacant presidency of Magdalene[1] College he appointed Antony Farmer, a Roman Catholic. The Fellows chose instead John Hough. The King went down himself to browbeat the Fellows; but they stoutly refused to obey him. A special commission then installed Parker, Bishop of Oxford—the new choice of James—and the Fellows were not only excluded by royal edict from the University, but the profession of the Church was shut against them. A Roman Catholic Bishop was then placed over Magdalene College, and twelve Catholic Fellows were appointed in one day. Two years later James felt the bitter truth that this blow, which, as he thought, struck at the root of English Protestantism, had in reality overturned his own throne.

[1] *Magdalene.*—Pronounced *Maud'lin.*

QUESTIONS.—1. What was the only way by which the Constitution could be restored? What was done with this view? Who had a leading share in the plot?

2. What secondary plot was formed? What was its object? What became of the leaders of the first plot?

3. What decree did the University of Oxford pass? How did Charles then punish his enemies? What was one of his latest acts?

4. When did Charles die? What had he previously declared himself?

5. What promises were made by James II. in his speech from the throne when he met his Parliament? How did he publish his adherence to the Roman Catholic faith? What was the state of public feeling towards him? What yearly revenue was voted him by the Commons?

6. What country was the refuge of the Rye-House conspirators? What two enterprises were resolved on by them?

7. Where did Argyle land? What was the result of his summons? Where was his army scattered? And where was he made prisoner? What was his fate?

8. When and where did Monmouth land? How was he received? In what town did he assume the title of King?

9. What town was he bent on taking? Why did he fall back? What battle decided his fate?

10. What was Monmouth's plan of attack? What prevented its success?

11. What alarmed the Royalists? What followed?

12. Where was Monmouth captured? What was his fate?

13. To whom was the punishment of the rebels at first intrusted? Who exceeded him in cruelty?

14. What name has been given to the assize which he opened at Winchester? Whose was the first trial for treason? What was the estimated number of Jeffrey's victims?

15. What was the grand design of James? How did he disregard the Test Act? By what means did he release all Roman Catholics from penalties? Under whose control was the Church placed by him? What measure was taken for coercing the nation into submission?

16. Who was the King's confidential adviser? Under whom was Scotland placed? What appointment was given to Tyrconnel? How did the King treat his brothers-in-law?

17. What were the proceedings of James against the University of Cambridge?

18. Whom did he appoint to the vacant presidency of Magdalene College, Oxford? Who was chosen by the Fellows? What was the result?

CHAPTER XX.

THE REVOLUTION.

1. Sunderland and Petre.
2. Declarations of Indulgence.
3. The Bishops' Petition.
4. Trial of the Seven Bishops.
5. Their Acquittal.
6. Irish Soldiers Brought over.
7. Invitation to the Prince of Orange.
8. James Yields.
9. William Lands at Torbay.
10. James Deserted.
11. His Flight.
12. William in London.
13. The Convention.
14. The Declaration of Right.
15. The Revolution Completed—Its Effects.

1. THE crisis was now fast approaching. The Parliament, which had been prorogued in the end of 1685, was finally dissolved in July 1687. The King was entirely in the hands of

the **Earl of Sunderland** and **Father Edward Petre**,—the former a political schemer who was at the same time intriguing both with the King of France and with the Prince of Orange. Their policy was to conciliate the Nonconformists in order to combine their influence with that of the Roman Catholics against the Established Church.

2. In April 1687 James had published—solely on his own authority, and therefore illegally—a **Declaration of Indulgence**, permitting all his subjects to worship in their own way. Though undoubtedly made for Roman Catholics, it gave liberty of conscience also to Nonconformists or Dissenters. A second and more important Declaration was now proclaimed; and, a week later, it was followed by an Order in Council, commanding all ministers to read it from their pulpits on two successive Sundays.

April 27, 1688 A.D.

3. This order the London clergy disobeyed; and the Primate, Sancroft, with six Bishops, drew up a **Petition** against the Declaration. James was furious. The seven Bishops were committed to the Tower, where they lay for a week before they were liberated on bail. During these exciting events the news spread that a son was born to James. Many refused to believe that the child was of royal blood. They declared that a child had been smuggled into the palace, and was now passed off as the King's son. That child was afterwards James the Pretender.

4. The **trial of the Seven Bishops**—one of our most important State trials—took place before the Court of King's Bench. They were charged with having published a false, malicious, and seditious libel; and the most skilful lawyers of that time were engaged for their defence. All day the trial went on. With much difficulty the lawyers for the Crown proved that the Bishops had drawn up and signed the petition, and had delivered it into the hands of the King. It remained for the jury to decide whether or not that petition was a libel. The four Judges were divided in their opinions, two against two.

June 29, 1688 A.D.

5. It was dark when the jury retired: they were locked up all night, and at ten next morning the Court met to hear **the verdict.** A deep silence prevailed; but when the words "Not

guilty"-left the foreman's lips, cheer after cheer echoed through the Court and the hall which led to it. The crowd outside took up the joyful sound, and all London was soon filled with shouts of gladness. That night was a blaze of illumination. Rows of seven candles, with a taller one in the middle for the Archbishop, lit up every window; bonfires were in every street; and rockets soared by hundreds from the rejoicing city.

6. Exasperated by defeat, James resolved to crush the spirit of the nation by force of arms; and by the advice of Barillon, the French minister, he brought over several regiments of **Irish soldiers.** A doggerel ballad, called from its burden "Lillibulero," set the whole nation, and especially the army, in a flame against James and the Irish troops. It was sung and whistled everywhere.

7. On the very day of the Bishops' acquittal, a letter, signed by some of the leading nobles and clergy[1] of England, was sent to **William, Prince of Orange-Nassau,** the nephew and son-in-law of James, entreating him to come with an army and aid them in defending their freedom and their faith. Common wrongs and the sense of common danger had obliterated party distinctions for the time, and had even united the Whigs and the Tories. William, accepting the call, began to make great preparations for the expedition; while James, still holding on in his fatal course, despised the warnings and the offered aid of Louis XIV. Nor did he awake to a sense of his danger till he heard from his minister at the Hague that William, having received the sanction of the States-General, had published a Declaration assigning reasons for the invasion of England.

8. James had no time to lose. In a few hours he yielded almost all the points for which he had been contending during three years. He dissolved the Ecclesiastical Commission, he removed Sunderland and Petre from the Council, and promised to call a Parliament. He found that he possessed a fleet of 30 sail, and an army of 40,000 regular troops. But all was to no purpose. The hearts of the people were estranged from him,

[1] Among them were the Earls of Danby, Devonshire, and Shrewsbury, and Bishop Compton. The most active in promoting the movement was Edward Russell, a cousin of William, Lord Russell, beheaded in 1683.

and their eyes looked eagerly over the sea for the sails of William's squadron.

9. Though delayed for a time by storms, the Prince of Orange landed safely and unopposed at **Torbay** in Devonshire. Under torrents of rain, along roads deep with mire, he advanced slowly with his force of 15,000 men through Newton-Abbot,[1] and in four days reached Exeter, where he was received with joy as the champion of the Protestant faith. There, on the following Sunday, he heard his friend Burnet preach from the cathedral pulpit.

Nov. 5, 1688 A.D.

10. A week passed without anything to encourage him; but thereafter the Earl of Abingdon entered his camp, and was soon followed by Colonel Lord Cornbury (son of the Earl of Clarendon), and other officers of James. The King hastened to Salisbury,[2] resolved to stake his kingdom on the issue of a great battle. But the policy of William was to avoid bloodshed, and to trust rather to time and that English temper which he knew to be thoroughly aroused against James. A few trifling skirmishes took place, but nothing more. The Earl of Bath put Plymouth[3] into William's hands. In rapid succession Lord Churchill, afterwards the great Duke of Marlborough; Prince George of Denmark, married to the King's daughter Anne;[4] and even Anne herself, abandoned the falling King. Every day brought new adherents to William, while every day the circle around James grew thinner.

11. The King then resolved on **flight.** He sent his wife and

[1] *Newton-Abbot*, 5 miles from Torbay, and about 15 south of Exeter.

[2] *Salisbury.*—The county town of Wiltshire; midway between London and Exeter; about 90 miles from each.

[3] *Plymouth.*—On Plymouth Sound in Devonshire; an important sea-port and naval station. It is 40 miles from Exeter.

[4] *Anne.*—Queen from 1702 till 1714.

son to France; and, when he knew of their safety, he left his palace under cover of darkness, and made his way to Sheerness, where a small vessel, then called a *hoy*, waited for him. While crossing the Thames he threw the Great Seal into the water, in the hope that this would confuse all the plans of the new Government. With the flight of James (December 11) his reign is held to have come to an end.

12. James had scarcely gone on board the hoy, when some Kentish fishermen, attracted by the hope of plunder, seized him and kept him a close prisoner. Soon released by an order from the Lords, he returned to the capital and passed thence to Rochester.[1] A second attempt to escape succeeded, and the news soon came that James had arrived safely at St. Germain,[2] and had been warmly welcomed by Louis. Meanwhile William passed from Windsor to London, where nearly every citizen wore the orange ribbon in his honour.

Dec. 23, **1688** A.D.

13. The Prince of Orange then called an assembly, known as the **Convention.** It differed from a Parliament in nothing but the single fact that the writs by which the members were summoned were issued by one not yet a King. The throne was then declared vacant, and great debates ensued on the settlement of affairs. Some proposed a Regency; others that Mary should be Queen, while William held the title of King for her lifetime only. Both plans were pointedly rejected by William, who declared that he would go back to Holland rather than accept a position inferior to that of his wife.

Jan. 22, **1689** A.D.

14. A document, called **the Declaration of Right,**[3] was then drawn up and passed. It determined in favour of the Parliament all the points in dispute with the Stewart Kings. William and Mary were declared King and Queen of England, the chief administration resting with him. The crown was settled first on the children of Mary; then on those of her sister Anne; and, these failing, on the children of William by any other wife.

---

[1] *Rochester.*—In Kent, 3 miles west of Chatham; 30 south-east of London.

[2] *St. Germain.*—Near Paris. James spent the remaining twelve years of his life there, a pensioner on the bounty of Louis; and there he died in 1701.

[3] *Declaration of Right.*—Converted into the "Bill of Rights" in October.

The son of James II. and his posterity were thus shut out entirely from the succession. Halifax took the lead in offering the crown; which William, promising to observe all the laws of the land, accepted for his wife and himself.

15. The great **English Revolution** was now complete. Thus terminated the grand struggle between Sovereign and Parliament; not in the erection of a wild democracy, but in the adjustment and firm establishment of the three great Estates of the Realm,—the King, the Lords, and the Commons; on whose due balance and mutual check the strength of the Constitution mainly depends. Besides confirming that great principle of the Constitution which declares that the Sovereign can make or unmake no law, the Revolution afforded toleration to Dissenters; and caused the Judges, previously liable to be dismissed at the pleasure of the Sovereign, to receive their appointments for life or during good conduct

QUESTIONS.—1. When was the Parliament dissolved? Who then directed the King's affairs? What was their policy?

2. When had the first Declaration of Indulgence been published? Why was it illegal? What permission was given by it? When was the second Declaration proclaimed? What Order in Council followed a week later?

3. How was this Order received by the London clergy? Who drew up a Petition against it? What was the popular opinion concerning the son born about this time to the King?

4. Before what court did the trial of the Seven Bishops take place? What was the charge against them? Detail the incidents of the trial. What was the opinion of the Judges?

5. When did the jury retire? When was their verdict given? What was it? How was the verdict received by the populace?

6. By whose advice did James bring into England several regiments of Irish soldiers? What was the name of the doggerel ballad which inflamed the nation against James and his Irish troops?

7. What important document was transmitted on the day of the acquittal of the Seven Bishops? How was this petition received? Who warned James? When did he awake to a sense of his danger?

8. How did he act? What forces did he possess? What were the feelings of the nation?

9. Where did the Prince of Orange land? What was the date of his landing? Give an account of his march towards Exeter.

10. What nobleman was the first to desert from James? By whom was he followed? Whither did the King hasten, and with what purpose? What was William's policy? What sea-port was put into William's hands by the Earl of Bath? How did Lord Churchill act? Who followed his example?

11. How did James attempt flight? What is he said to have done, while crossing the Thames?

12. How was his flight arrested? What was the result of his second attempt? How was he received by the French monarch? How was the Prince of Orange received in London?

13. What was the assembly called by William styled? In what did it differ from a Parliament? What were the proceedings of this assembly?

14. What were the terms of the Dec-

laration of Right? What nobleman took the lead in offering the crown to William?

15. How did the great Revolution terminate? What were the chief advantages of the Revolution?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. **1685.**—Louis XIV. of France **revoked the Edict of Nantes**[1] (granted in 1598), and thousands of Protestants were banished, and benefited other countries, especially England, Switzerland, and Prussia, by their industry.

2. **1686.**—Holland formed with other States the **League of Augsburg**[2] against France, for the maintenance of the Treaties of Westphalia (1648) and Nimeguen (1678).

QUESTIONS.—1. When was the Edict of Nantes revoked? Who were thereby banished from France? How were other countries benefited?—2. What was the League of Augsburg? When was it formed?

CHAPTER XXI.

SOCIAL CONDITION—THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

1. Surface of the Country.
2. Animals.
3. Minerals.
4. Population.
5. The Chief Towns.
6. London.
7. The Coffee-houses.
8. The Country Gentlemen.
9. The Ladies.
10. The Country Clergy.
11. The Yeomen or Small Farmers.
12. The Labouring Class.
13. Sanitary Affairs.
14. Dress and Habits.
15. Roads and Travelling.
16. Inns.
17. The "News-Letter"
18. Learning.
19. Leading Authors.
20. Leading Artists.

1. THOUGH in former periods the **Surface** of England changed much as years rolled by, yet the change since the Stewarts reigned has perhaps been the most marked of all. Where there may now be seen green meadows and yellow corn-fields, orchards white with spring blossoms or golden with autumn fruit, and cosy farm-houses nestling among sheltering trees, there was then in many places nothing but forest, furze, or marsh.

2. **Animals.**—Through the old woods wandered deer in great troops, a few wild bulls, and, until the peasantry killed them

[1] *Nantes.*—The Edict was granted by Henry IV. (See p. 242.)

[2] *Augsburg.* — In Bavaria; 36 miles north-west of Munich.

during the Civil War, wild boars, long preserved for royal sport. Badgers, wild cats, eagles, bustards were common even in the southern and eastern lowlands of England. The sheep and the oxen were much smaller than the modern breeds. The British horses, now famed all the world over, then sold for fifty shillings each. Spanish genets for the saddle, and gray Flanders mares for harness, were the breeds most prized.

3. **Minerals.**—Mines were still poorly worked. Cornwall yielded tin, and Wales yielded copper, but in quantities much below the present supply. Salt, now a leading export, was then so badly prepared that the physicians blamed it as the cause of many diseases of the skin and the lungs. The iron manufacture was checked by the cry which was raised about the waste of wood in the furnaces. The smelters had not yet learned to use coal, which was still only a domestic fuel, burned in the districts where it abounded, and in London, whither it was carried by sea.

4. The **population** of England at the close of the seventeenth century was about five millions and a half. The increase of people in the northern counties far exceeded that in the south of the island. The cause of this may be found in the rapid improvement of these counties which followed the union of the crowns in 1603. Previously, the north had been constantly ravaged by the Border robbers, called Moss-troopers, from whom neither house nor herd was safe. Gradually these free-booters were hunted down, or were led to adopt honest ways of living. The paths of the country, long imperfectly known, were opened; life and property became secure. Coal-beds were discovered. Manufacturing towns began to rise, and were soon filled with a thriving population.

5. **Towns.**—After the capital, Bristol was the greatest English sea-port, and Norwich the chief manufacturing town, under the Stewarts. The Bristol citizens, among whom the sugar-refiners took the lead, were famed for wealth and hospitality. The great seats of manufacture were then small and badly-built market towns. Manchester, the modern centre of the cotton trade, contained only 6,000 inhabitants, and could boast of neither a printing-press nor a hackney-coach. Leeds, now the great woollen mart, had a population of about 7,000

persons. Sheffield, whose forges send out the best cutlery in the world, had barely 2,000 inhabitants. Birmingham, only rising into notice, was proud of sending her hardware so far off as to Ireland. There were not more than 200 seamen belonging to the port of Liverpool. Buxton, Bath, and Tunbridge Wells were the fashionable watering-places of the time; but the lodgings were very poor, and the food sold in these places was of the most wretched description. Brighton and Cheltenham are of modern growth.

6. **London**, when Charles II. died, had a population of half a million. One old bridge spanned the Thames; and the houses were built with the upper stories projecting over the shops below. The City was the merchant's home. He did not then, as now, leave his counting-house after business hours for a villa in the suburbs. No numbers marked the houses; but, instead of these, the streets were lined with the signs of shops, —here the Saracen's Head, there the Golden Key. By these the people described their dwellings, and strangers found their way. The streets, not lighted until the last year of Charles II., and then only during the winter, were infested with robbers, and teemed with other dangers. It was the height of fashion among dissipated young men to parade the foot-way at night, insulting and often maltreating those whom they met. From these the feeble tippling watchmen could or would give no protection.

7. The **Coffee-houses**, first set up in Cromwell's time, were the great lounges, where the news and the scandal of the day were discussed. In one might have been seen the exquisites, with their flowing wigs, their embroidered coats, their fringed gloves, and their scented snuff. To another crowded literary men to hear John Dryden talk. There were coffee-houses for every class. Jews flocked to one; Roman Catholics filled another; Puritans met their brethren in a third; and so with men of every rank and opinion.

8. The **Country gentlemen**, now a polished and an important class, were, at the time of the Revolution, rough and poorly educated. Their lands yielded rents equal to about one-fourth of those now paid. Seldom leaving their native county, even for London, they spent their days in field-sports,

or in attending the neighbouring markets, and their evenings in drinking strong beer. Claret and Canary wines were drunk only by the very wealthy. Drunkenness was a common and fashionable vice, and continued to be so more or less until the beginning of the present century.

9. The **ladies** of the family, whose accomplishments seldom rose above the baking of pastry and the making of gooseberry wine, cooked the meals of the household. In the evening they amused themselves by sewing and spinning. The graces of the modern tea-table were quite unknown to the country folk, although tea had been introduced into England by Lords Arlington and Ossory in 1666. It was not till nearly a century later that the middle classes of London and Edinburgh began to use that favourite beverage daily.

10. The country **Clergy** stood low in the social scale. In most mansions there was a chaplain, or, as he was often called, a *Levite*, who, receiving his board and £10 a year, was no better than an upper servant. His wife was often taken from the kitchen of his patron. Even if he got a parish he lived and worked like a peasant; his sons were ploughmen, and his daughters went to service. It must not be forgotten that the London clergy, among whom were Sherlock,[1] Tillotson,[2] and Stillingfleet,[3] formed a class by themselves, and upheld the character of the English Church for zeal, learning, and eloquence.

11. The yeomen or small **Farmers**, whose incomes averaged £60 or £70 a year, were numerous and influential. Their chief characteristic was a strong preference for Puritanism. From this class chiefly were drawn the Ironsides of Cromwell.

12. Of the **Labouring class** we know little. Four-fifths of its members were employed in agriculture. The highest wages, averaging five shillings a week without food, were paid in Devon, Suffolk, and Essex. Those engaged in manufactures

[1] *Sherlock.*—William Sherlock, an eminent English divine; born 1641; died 1707. He was Master of the Temple, and afterwards Dean of St. Paul's. His son, Thomas Sherlock (1678–1761), was a famous preacher. He was successively Bishop of Bangor, of Salisbury, and of London.

[2] *Tillotson.*—John Tillotson, made Archbishop of Canterbury by William III. He was a celebrated preacher. Born 1630; died 1694.

[3] *Stillingfleet.*—Edward Stillingfleet, Bishop of Worcester; born 1635; died 1699. He preached and wrote with great ability and learning against both Roman Catholicism and Nonconformity in the reign of James II.

earned about six shillings a week. Children were employed in factories to an extraordinary extent: even by the benevolent they were thought fit for work at six years of age! The chief food of the poor was rye, barley, and oats. Rude ballads were their only means of complaint; and in these they poured forth their woes. The poor-rate was the heaviest tax; for the paupers amounted to no less than one-fifth of the community.

13. **Sanitary affairs** were in a deplorable state. Even in the streets of the capital open sewers and heaps of filth poisoned the air. The deaths in London in 1685 were more than one in twenty-three; the yearly average now is about one in forty. People of coarse and brutal natures were found in all classes in great numbers. Nor is this wonderful, when the training of every-day life is considered. Masters beat their servants; teachers enforced diligence as well as discipline by a frequent application of the lash. The mob rejoiced in fights of all kinds. Executions were favourite public spectacles. The prisons were constantly full, and proved to be most fruitful nurseries of disease and crime.

14. The Cavalier and the Roundhead present a striking contrast in their **dress and habits.** Bright colours, profuse ornament, and graceful style, marked the costume of the *Cavalier*. His richly-laced cloak, over which lay an embroidered collar; his broad-leafed hat of beaver, with its white and flowing plume; his silken doublet of the Vandyck pattern;[1] his flowing locks, gilt spurs, and slashed boots, made up a figure the most picturesque of any period in English history. The *Puritan* or Roundhead wore a cloak of sad-coloured brown or of black; a plain collar of linen laid carelessly down on the plaited cloth; and a hat with a high steeple-shaped crown over his closely clipped or lank straight hair. His baptismal name was often cast aside, and some strange biblical phrase adopted in its stead. These, however, were but the outward extravagances of a character which had in it much that was honest, solid, and worthy of respect. Charles II. introduced the peruke, a long flowing wig, which covered even the shoulders. It continued to be the fashion until after the close of the period.

[1] *Vandyck pattern.*—The style usually painted by Vandyck (see p. 335) in his portraits of men of his day. The doublet was a long waistcoat

15. The **roads** were so bad that **travelling** was very difficult. In rainy weather there was generally only a slight ridge in the centre of the road between two channels of deep mud. Instead of making circuits in order to avoid steep places, the roads went right up and down the hills. The stage-waggon and the pack-horses carried goods; the former taking passengers also. Rich men travelled in their own coaches; but they were obliged often to have six horses, to pull them through the mud! In 1669 a "Flying Coach" left Oxford at six in the morning, and reached London at seven the same evening—fifty-five miles in thirteen hours!—a feat then considered wonderful and dangerous. From Chester, York, or Exeter, a winter journey to London took six days. We owe the great improvement of our roads since those days chiefly to the Turnpikes.[1]

16. The **inns** were good and comfortable—as indeed they had need to be, when so many nights were spent on the road. Highwaymen, well armed, and mounted on fine horses, infested all the great roads; and it is said that many of the inn-keepers were paid by them to give information about those travellers who were worth attacking. The post-bags were carried on horseback at the rate of five miles an hour; but in many country places letters were delivered only once a week.

17. There was nothing like our modern newspaper. Small single leaves were published twice a week while the Exclusion Bill was being discussed; but the only paper afterwards allowed was *The London Gazette*, a two-paged bi-weekly sheet, of very meagre contents. No Parliamentary debates, no State trials were permitted to be reported. An important feature of social life during the age was **The News-Letter.** This was an epistle, despatched to the country generally once a week, giving all the chat of the coffee-houses and the news of the capital. Several families subscribed to pay some Londoner, who gave them the scraps of news gathered during his rambles. "Our own Correspondent" is the modern representative of the system.

[1] *Turnpikes.*—Toll-bars; a gate placed across the road to stop those liable to pay toll for the maintenance and improvement of the road. It was originally a frame consisting of two spiked bars at right angles, which turned on an upright post—hence the name.

18. **Learning.**—There were few printing-presses in the country, except in London and at the Universities. The only press north of the Trent was at York. Books were therefore scarce and dear, and very few were found even in the best country houses. In London the booksellers' shops were thronged with readers. Female education was at a very low point; and the most accomplished ladies spelled very badly. At the Universities Greek was little studied; but Latin, in which Governments still conducted their correspondence, was for this reason spoken and written with ease. French, however, was rapidly rising to be the language of diplomacy. Astronomy was ably cultivated by Halley and Flamsteed, the latter of whom was the first Astronomer-Royal. Natural Philosophy owed its birth as a science to Isaac Newton. But the favourite and fashionable study of the later Stewart days was Chemistry Charles II. had a laboratory in his palace of Whitehall. Even the ladies were smitten with the rage for science. It was soon discovered, too, that chemistry might be turned to the improvement of agriculture.

---

19. LEADING AUTHORS.

FRANCIS BEAUMONT, (1586–1616), and **JOHN FLETCHER,** (1576–1625)—wrote plays together, fifty-two in all.

BEN JONSON, (1574–1637)—dramatic poet—earliest play, *Every Man in his Humour*, 1598—made Poet-Laureate in 1619.

PHILIP MASSINGER, (1584–1640)—dramatic poet—lived chiefly in London—chief play, *A New Way to Pay Old Debts.*

KING JAMES I. (of England)—pupil of Buchanan—author of *Dæmonologie* (a dialogue on witchcraft), *Basilicon Dōron*,[1] and *Counterblast to Tobacco.*

WILLIAM DRUMMOND, (1585–1649)—Scottish lyric poet—lived at Hawthornden—wrote *Sonnets* and *The River of Forth Feasting.*

IZAAK WALTON, (1593–1683)—a linen-draper of Cornhill—author of *The Compleat Angler*—favourite stream, the *Dove.*

JEREMY TAYLOR, (1613–1667)—Bishop of Down and Connor—the English Chrysostom[2]—chief works, *Holy Living* and *Holy Dying.*

JOHN MILTON, (1608–1674)—greatest epic poet of modern times—Latin Secretary to Cromwell—finest work, *Paradise Lost*, an epic

[1] *Basilikon Dōron.*—Royal Gift.

[2] *Chrysostom.*—Pronounced *Kris'ostom;* the most eloquent of the Fathers of the early Christian Church. He was Bishop of Constantinople. Born 344; died 407 A.D.

in twelve books, on the Fall, written in blindness and poverty, between 1658 and 1665—other works, *Paradise Regained*, a shorter epic; *Comus*, a masque; *Lycidas*, *L'Allegro*, and *Il Penseroso;* and many fine sonnets—wrote also prose, of which *Areopagitica*, a plea for the freedom of the press, is the finest specimen.

EDWARD HYDE, (1608–1674)—Earl of Clarendon—an exile during the Commonwealth—Lord Chancellor from 1660 to 1667—wrote *History of the Rebellion;* that is, of the Civil War.

SAMUEL BUTLER, (1612–1680)—chief work, *Hudibras*, a mock-heroic poem, in short couplets, written to caricature the Puritans, and published in the reign of Charles II.

JOHN OWEN, (1616–1683)—chaplain to Oliver Cromwell—a leading Nonconformist—a voluminous writer—chief work, *An Exposition of the Epistle to the Hebrews.*

JOHN BUNYAN, (1628–1688)—a tinker of Bedford—afterwards a soldier—then a Baptist preacher—imprisoned for preaching—chief work, *The Pilgrim's Progress*, a prose allegory, describing the life and triumph of a Christian under the figure of a journey.

RICHARD BAXTER, (1615–1691)—once Rector of Kidderminster—then a Presbyterian minister—chief works, *The Saints' Everlasting Rest* and *A Call to the Unconverted*—wrote in all 168 works.

JOHN DRYDEN, (1631–1700)—satiric and dramatic poet—chief works, *Absalom and Achitophel*, a political satire; and *Alexander's Feast*, an ode—translated Virgil's *Æneid* into English verse.

JOHN LOCKE, (1632–1704)—the great mental philosopher of the period—educated at Oxford—chief work, *An Essay on the Human Understanding*, published in 1690.

GILBERT BURNET, (1643–1715)—a friend of William III.—created Bishop of Salisbury—chief works, *History of My Own Times*, and *History of the Reformation of the Church of England.*

---

20. LEADING ARTISTS.

INIGO JONES, (1572–1652)—a native of London—a distinguished architect—designed the Banqueting-House of Whitehall.

PETER PAUL RUBENS, (1577–1640)—a Flemish painter—a pupil of Titian—painted the Banqueting-House of Whitehall.

ANTHONY VANDYCK, (1599–1641)—a Flemish painter—pupil of Rubens—painted the portrait of Charles I.

SIR CHRISTOPHER WREN, (1632–1723)—a famous architect—chief design, St. Paul's Cathedral.

QUESTIONS.—1. What was the general appearance of the country during the Stewart period?

2. Mention wild animals common in England in the seventeenth century? What was the average price of a horse at that time? What breeds of foreign horses were most prized?

3. What do you know of the working of mines during the Stewart period? Where was coal in use?

4. What was the population of England at the close of the seventeenth century? Why did it increase most in the North? What had been the condition of the Border counties previously to 1603?

5. Which was the second sea-port of the kingdom? Which was the chief manufacturing town? What business throve most at Bristol? Mention towns, now large, which were then small. Which were the fashionable watering-places?

6. What was the population of London at the death of Charles II.? How many bridges were there? Give a description of the metropolis at this period. When were the streets of London first lighted? What dangers beset the streets at night?

7. When were coffee-houses set up? Why are these houses of importance in the history of the period?

8. What do you know of the country gentry? What wines were drunk by the wealthy?

9. What were the accomplishments of the ladies? By whom and when was tea introduced into England? When did this beverage begin to be used daily by the middle classes?

10. What was the condition of the country clergy? What was a "Levite"? What of the London clergy?

11. What was the average income of the yeomen or small farmers? What was their chief characteristic?

12. What was the condition of the labouring class? In what counties were the highest wages paid? What was the average pay of an agricultural labourer? What were the weekly earnings of those engaged in manufactures? What was the chief food of the poor? What means of complaint were open to the poor?

13. Compare the average mortality in London during the year 1685 and at the present period. What reasons can you assign for the difference? What was the moral condition of the people?

14. Describe the costume of a Cavalier, and of a Roundhead. What headdress was introduced by Charles II.?

15. What was the condition of the roads? How did the middle class travel? How did the rich travel? In how many hours was the journey from Oxford to London accomplished by the "Flying Coach" in 1669? What was the time occupied in a winter journey from Chester, York, or Exeter to London? To what do we owe the improvement of our roads since that period?

16. What was the character of the inns? What was the chief danger of travelling? What were the postal arrangements?

17. Describe the newspapers of the period. What was the "News-Letter"?

18. Where were the chief printing-presses of the country? Where was the only press north of the Trent? What was the state of learning? Who was the first astronomer-royal? To whom did Natural Philosophy owe its birth as a science?

19. Name the chief works of Ben Jonson, James I. of England, Walton, Clarendon, Baxter, Locke. Who wrote *River of Forth Feasting? Lycidas? Areopagitica? Hudibras? Absalom and Achitophel?*

20. Name the architect and the painter of the Banqueting-House at Whitehall, and the architect of St. Paul's.

BOOK IV.

LIMITED MONARCHY.

HOUSE OF STEWART—CONTINUED.

	A.D.
William III. and Mary II. (nephew and daughter of James II.)	1689–1694
William III.	1694
Anne (daughter of James II.)	1702

HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK.

George I. (great-grandson of James I.)	1714
George II. (son)	1727
George III. (grandson)	1760
George IV. (son)	1820
William IV. (brother)	1830
Victoria (niece)	1837

CHAPTER I.

CONSTITUTIONAL GOVERNMENT.

1. Coronation of William and Mary
2. The Mutiny Act.
3. The Nonjurors—The Toleration Act.
4. The Bill of Rights.
5. Battle of Killiecrankie.
6. James in Ireland.
7. The Siege of Londonderry.
8. William in Ireland.
9. Battle of the Boyne.
10. Flight of James.
11. The Pacification of Limerick.
12. Macdonald of Glencoe.
13. The Massacre.
14. Who were to Blame.
15. William's Foreign Policy.
16. War with France.
17. The National Debt.
18. The Bank of England—Triennial Parliaments.
19. Freedom of the Press—Trials for Treason.
20. The Darien Company.
21. Ruin of the Colony.

1. *WILLIAM III.*[1] *and MARY II.*[2]—On February 13, 1689, the Declaration of Right was formally accepted by William and Mary, who were thereupon proclaimed King and Queen. The Convention was then declared to be a Parliament. A new

[1] *William III.*—Son of William of Nassau, Prince of Orange, and of Mary Stewart, daughter of Charles I. Married Mary Stewart. Reigned 13 years.

[2] *Mary II.*—Daughter of James II. and of Anne Hyde. Married William of Orange, as in preceding note. Reigned 5 years.

coronation oath, and new oaths of allegiance and supremacy, were prepared. The coronation took place on April 11,
1689 in Westminster Abbey, where the chief ministers of
A.D. James stood around the double throne. One there was whose crimes were too black for pardon. Jeffreys lay in the Tower, to which he had been borne amid the roars of a mob thirsting for his blood. He had been found begrimed with coal dust, and in the dress of a common sailor, lurking in a Wapping[1] ale-house. A few days after his arrest he died.

2. In March several Scottish regiments which were in England were ordered abroad. Holding themselves to be at the disposal of the Scottish Parliament alone, they declined to go, and one regiment mutinied. The mutiny was put down by William's Dutch troops; and the **Mutiny Act** was passed, putting soldiers under martial law. As this Act must be renewed annually, there is here an indirect provision for Parliament being called together every year.

3. Archbishop Sancroft and seven bishops refused to take the oath of allegiance to William, and were suspended from office. The example of the nonjuring bishops was followed by four hundred of the clergy. In May the **Toleration Act** was passed, abolishing penalties for absence from the Established Church, and for attending conventicles, but requiring all assemblies for religious worship to be held with open doors. This annulled so much of the Clarendon Code, but the Corporation Act and the Test Act remained in full force till 1828.

4. Towards the end of the year the Declaration of Right was confirmed and extended in the **Bill of Rights**, which ranks, after *Magna Charta* and the *Habeas Corpus* Act, as the third great charter of British freedom. This Act, besides confirming the settlement of the crown, asserted more clearly than any earlier statute the authority of Parliament. It gave Parliament absolute power over the army and the navy, over the courts of law and the succession to the crown, and thus made it supreme in the State. It established the great principle, that an English Sovereign holds his crown solely by the will of Parliament. Early

[1] *Wapping.*—A district in the east of London, bordering the Thames. It consists of crowded and narrow streets, large warehouses, and docks.

in 1690 the Convention Parliament was dissolved. In the new Parliament the Tories had a decided majority.

5. Bloodlessly the great change had been accomplished in England. It was not so, however, either in Scotland or in Ireland. Although the Scottish Convention, boldly declaring that James had forfeited the crown, had proclaimed William and Mary, yet the whole nation was not of one mind. The Highland clans, fond of war, and excited by a desire to uphold the ancient Scottish name of Stewart, took up arms for James, under Graham of Claverhouse, now Viscount Dundee. At the same time, and in the same cause, the Duke of Gordon held out in the Castle of Edinburgh. But the insurrection was short-lived. Edinburgh Castle surrendered in a few months. Dundee, meeting General Mackay in battle at the **Pass of Killiecrankie**,[1] in Perthshire, was struck down by a bullet just as his clansmen were sweeping all before them. When their leader had fallen, the Highland army soon dispersed. July 27, **1689** A.D.

6. Of greater importance were the events in **Ireland**; for there James himself, surrounded by the Celtic Irish, who looked on him as a hero, made his last vain struggle for the crown. Louis encouraged the expedition; and Tyrconnel, still Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, raised an army for James. Lord Mountjoy, leader of the Irish Protestants, was enticed to Paris and shut up in the Bastille. James landed at Kinsale,[2] and entered Dublin in triumph (March 24). **1689** A.D.

7. His first great operation was the siege of **Londonderry**,[3] the stronghold of the Ulster Protestants. The citizens, greatly encouraged by the Rev. George Walker, whose monument still rises from the walls, endured the worst miseries of famine for more than three months; but at last three ships from England broke the boom of fir-wood laid across the river Foyle, and carried food to the starving garrison. The Irish army, thus baffled, retreated without delay (July 28, 1689).

---

[1] *Killiecrankie.* — In the north of Perthshire.

[2] *Kinsale.*—15 miles south of Cork.

[3] *Londonderry.* — In the north of Ireland, on the Foyle; 144 miles northwest of Dublin. It was called Derry till 1615, when it was granted by charter to the London Companies.

8. Marshal Schomberg then arrived with 16,000 troops; and William, soon landing at Carrickfergus,[1] found himself at the head of 40,000 men. The last day of June brought William to the northern bank of the **Boyne**, a few miles above Drogheda,[2] with 36,000 troops. Riding by the stream, he was fired at by an impatient artilleryman in the opposite army; and the second shot, rebounding from the river-bank, grazed his right shoulder. It was thought among the troops of James that he was dead; but all day long he was maturing his plans, and at midnight he rode by torchlight through his army, to satisfy himself that his forces were properly disposed.

9. The battle began next morning under a cloudless sky, by the army of William commencing to ford the stream at three different points. The right wing, under Schomberg's son, crossed at Slane in the face of some opposition from the Irish left. At Old Bridge the King led his veteran Dutch Guards into the stream to the sound of martial music, which was exchanged, mid-stream, for the roar of the Irish cannonade. But the Blues, soon emerging from their deep wading, coolly mustered in the face of this great fire. And then they dashed on the Irish intrenchments, and swept them clean.

July 1, 1690 A.D.

10. The cavalry of James behaved well. One body attacked the Blues; whom, however, they could not shake. Another repulsed the third division of forders, formed mainly of Danes and Huguenots; and it was in the effort to recover this check

[1] *Carrickfergus.*—On Belfast Lough; 9 miles north-east of Belfast.

[2] *Drogheda.*—Thirty-one miles north of Dublin.

that Schomberg met a soldier's death, receiving a bullet in the neck. James had already fled through the Pass of Duleek for Dublin; thence he hurried to Kinsale, and thence to France.

11. The war was prolonged for a year by Tyrconnel and St. Ruth, a French general. In the Battle of *Aughrim*[1] St. Ruth was killed by a cannon-ball (July 12, 1691). The Siege of Limerick,[2] where the fragments of James's army made their last stand, ended in a capitulation (October 3, 1691). On Thomond Bridge, over the Shannon, is still to be seen the stone on which was signed the Pacification of **Limerick**,—the treaty that made William unquestioned King of Ireland. One million acres were confiscated to the Crown, and their possessors were driven into exile. About 1,200 Irishmen crossed to France, and formed the "Irish Brigade" in the army of Louis. Thenceforth William held the crown securely.

1691 A.D.

12. The Highland chiefs were still restless. To buy them over, a sum of £16,000 was sent to the Earl of Breadalbane; and at the same time a Royal Order decreed that all chieftains of clans should take an oath of allegiance to William before the last day of the year 1691. One delayed,—**Macdonald of Glencoe**,[3] a personal foe of Breadalbane. His motive seems to have been, not so much enmity to William, as a quarrel with Breadalbane about the division of the money. Repenting of his obstinacy in the last week of December, he hastened to Fort William,[4] but found that the governor had no authority to receive his oath, and that he must go to the Sheriff of Argyle at Inverary.[5] A toilsome journey over snowy hills and across swollen floods threw him a day or two late; but he was permitted to take the oath, and went home well pleased, and, as he thought, safe.

13. In a few weeks Captain Campbell of Glenlyon,[6] with a

---

[1] *Aughrim.*—A village west of the river Suck, and about 25 miles east of Galway, in the midst of bogs.

[2] *Limerick.*—On the Shannon; 108 miles south-west of Dublin; built partly on an island in the river.

[3] *Glencoe.*—In the north-east of Argyleshire, south of Loch Levin.

[4] *Fort William.*—At the foot of Ben Nevis; 15 miles north of Glencoe.

[5] *Inverary.*—The county town of Argyleshire; 35 miles south of Glencoe, and 40 north-west of Glasgow.

[6] *Glenlyon.*—A picturesque valley in Perthshire, between Loch Tay and Loch Rannoch.

troop of soldiers, entered Glencoe, a gloomy glen of Argyleshire, in which lay the little settlement of the Macdonalds. They were met with a Highland welcome, and a fortnight went merrily by. The unsuspecting Macdonalds left nothing undone to please and entertain their guests. Hunting and feasting filled the days and the nights, until, when the time seemed ripe, the soldiers rose suddenly before the winter dawn and began the work of blood. The chief, his wife, and thirty-six besides, were butchered; the rest fled half naked to the snowy hills, where many died. In all one hundred and twenty perished; but two of the chieftain's sons and one hundred and fifty others escaped. The earliest beams of the rising sun fell on a mass of smoking ruins.

Feb. 13, 1692 A.D.

14. The blame of this foul deed rests chiefly with Breadalbane and Sir John Dalrymple, **the Master of Stair**, then the Secretary of State for Scotland. It was Stair who obtained from William the order, signed both at the beginning and at the end, "to extirpate that set of thieves." Stair himself wrote to the commander-in-chief in Scotland, that he hoped "the soldiers would not trouble the Government with prisoners;" adding, "better not meddle with them than not do it to purpose." The only excuse made for William is that he signed the order without knowing the circumstances. This excuse would have deserved more weight, if William had not allowed the perpetrators of the atrocity to go unpunished after a Parliamentary inquiry had brought all the circumstances to light.

15. To humble Louis XIV. of France was the great object of

William's **foreign policy.** Louis was the most powerful Roman Catholic Sovereign in Europe. William had long been looked on as the great Captain of the Protestant armies. **1692** Louis, grasping gladly at the dethronement of James as A.D. a cause of war, prepared for a mighty invasion of England; but, in an action off **La Hogue**[1] with the ships of England and Holland, his fleet was so shattered that all his plans were defeated.

16. Every summer then saw William on the Continent, in spite of his delicate health, engaged in hostilities with Louis, whom, though he could not humble, he kept in constant check, —a matter of the utmost importance to all Europe. The chief battles of this Continental War were *Steinkirk*,[2] (1692); *Landen*[3] or *Neerwinden* (1693),—in both of which William gained honour, though forced to retreat; and the great siege of *Namur*[4] (1695), which ended in the capitulation of the French. The Treaty of **Ryswick**[5] in 1697 brought the war to a close. Louis gave up most of his conquests, and acknowledged William as King of Great Britain and Ireland. This was the death-blow to the hopes of James.

17. Out of these expensive wars sprang the **National Debt,** which has since swelled to a sum so enormous. The Parliament, knowing that the chief value of the English crown in William's eyes was the increased weight it gave him in Continental politics, agreed to furnish large supplies of money for his wars with Louis, on condition that he should give up to the Commons the chief share in the domestic government. Though at first reluctant, he soon yielded to the arrangement with a grace and temper which proved his good sense. The influence thus acquired by the Commons has never since been lost.

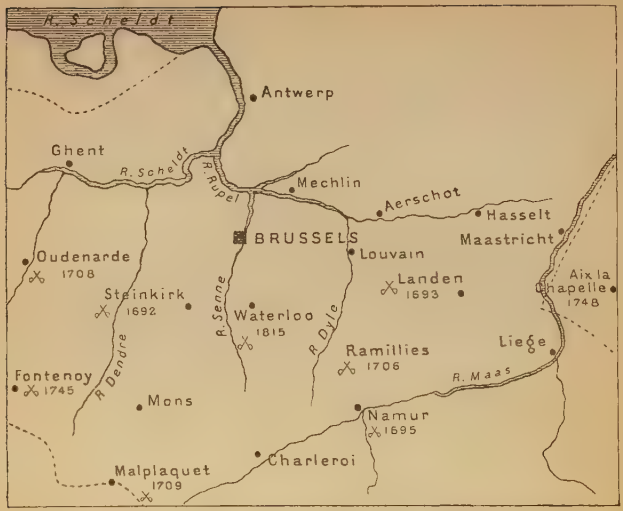
[1] *La Hogue.*—A cape on the eastern side of the peninsula of Cotentin, in the north-west of France. It is 80 miles south of the Isle of Wight. Cape la Hogue is often confounded with Cape de la Hague, which is 25 miles to the north-west, opposite Alderney

[2] *Steinkirk.*—A village in Belgium, between Brussels and Mons, a few miles west of Waterloo.

[3] *Landen.*—A town of Belgium, 23 miles north-west of Liege; now a station on the railway from Liege to Mechlin. —*Neerwinden,* where the battle was fought, is a village 2 miles north-west of Landen.

[4] *Namur.*—A strong fortress at the junction of the Sambre and the Meuse; 67 miles south-east of Brussels.

[5] *Ryswick.*—A village of Holland; 2 miles south-east of the Hague. On the Thanksgiving-day for the Peace of Ryswick, St. Paul's Cathedral in London was first opened for public worship.



18. One of the schemes devised to meet the extraordinary expense of these foreign wars led to the establishment of the **Bank of England.** A body of merchants agreed to lend the Government £1,200,000 at 8 per cent., in return for certain trading privileges. The scheme originated with a Scotsman named William Paterson. It was violently opposed in Parliament, but was ultimately carried. The charter was granted 27th July 1694. In the same year was passed the Bill for **Triennial Parliaments,**[1] which made the House of Commons more directly dependent on the country, and less under the influence of the Crown. In the last week of 1694 **Queen Mary died** of small-pox, and thenceforth William ruled alone.

1694 A.D.

19. *WILLIAM III.*—About this time a great and valuable reform was silently effected. The Act to restrain unlicensed printing was passed from year to year. It was passed in 1693

[1] *Triennial Parliaments.* — William refused his assent to a similar Bill in March 1693. It was again introduced towards the end of that year, but was negatived in the Commons. William at last agreed to the measure in order to conciliate the Commons and obtain supplies.

for the last time. When the time for its renewal arrived, the Commons declined to renew it, and it was allowed to expire. This established the **freedom of the press.** An important Act for regulating **trials for treason** was passed in 1696. It provided that the accused should be furnished with a copy of their indictment, and should be allowed the aid of counsel; and that the prosecution should be begun within three years of the alleged treason.

20. William Paterson, the founder of the Bank of England, was the originator of a Scottish Company empowered to trade to the West Indies and Africa. The scheme was sanctioned by the Scottish Parliament in 1695. The capital was £900,000. Of this sum £400,000 was subscribed in Scotland, then a poor country. Merchants of London and Amsterdam took shares for the remainder. The Isthmus of **Darien** was selected as a central position for commerce both with India and with America, and a colony was founded there in 1698. **1695** A.D.

21. The East India Company looked on the scheme as an infringement of their rights. Certain Dutch merchants also believed that it would injure their interests. They combined to oppose the expedition. So persistent were they, that they induced the King to set his face against it. **The colony was ruined,** and all the money lost. The settlers, badly supported by their countrymen, sank into want. Disease carried them off by scores. The neighbouring British colonies, either through jealousy or acting under orders from home, refused to lend any assistance. And, to crown all, the Spaniards, claiming the soil on which their town, New Edinburgh, was built, harassed them with ceaseless attacks. Very few of the unhappy colonists ever saw Scotland again. **1698** A.D.

QUESTIONS.—1. When were William and Mary proclaimed? What document did they previously accept? When were they crowned? What was the fate of Jeffreys?

2. What was the origin of the Mutiny Act? How does it affect the meeting of Parliament?

3. Who were the Nonjurors? What was the Toleration Act?

4. What Act extended the Declaration of Right? When was it passed? What power does it give to Parliament? What principle does it establish regarding the crown? Which party had a majority in the new Parliament?

5. By whom was James supported in Scotland? Who was their leader? What nobleman held out against William in the Castle of Edinburgh? What was the result of the insurrection? Where and under what circumstances did the

death of Claverhouse occur? What then became of his army?

6. How did the Irish revolt commence?

7. What was the first great operation of the Jacobite army? How was the siege raised? How long had it lasted?

8. Where did William land? What was his force? Where did he encounter James's army? What narrow escape had William?

9. When did the battle begin? With what operation? Where did William cross? What followed?

10. In what circumstances was Schomberg shot? Whither did James flee?

11. After the flight of James who carried on the war? Who was slain at the Battle of Aughrim? Where was the last stand of James's army made? What treaty made William unquestioned King of Ireland? What severe measures followed?

12. What measure was taken to pacify the Highland chiefs? What seems to have been the cause of Macdonald's delay in taking the oath? Why had he to go to Inverary? What made him late? Why did he go home well pleased?

13. Who entered Glencoe a few weeks later? How were they entertained? When did the massacre take place?

14. With whom does the blame of this deed chiefly rest? What was Stair's share in it? What excuse is made for William? Why is it a weak one?

15. What was the great object of William's foreign policy? How were Louis's preparations for the invasion of England defeated?

16. In what engagements abroad did William gain renown? How and when was the war brought to a close?

17. How did the National Debt arise? How did the Commons during this reign acquire increased influence?

18. How did the Bank of England originate? Who was its originator? When was the Bill for Triennial Parliaments passed? When did Mary die?

19. How was the freedom of the press established? What Act was passed in 1696? What were its provisions?

20. Who originated the Darien Company? What was its capital? By whom subscribed? Why was Darien selected as the site for a settlement? When was the colony founded?

21. Who combined to oppose the scheme? With what result? What became of the settlers?

CHAPTER II.

THE GRAND ALLIANCE—THE SPANISH SUCCESSION.

1. Reduction of the Army.
2. Origin of the Cabinet.
3. The Spanish Crown.
4. The Second Partition Treaty.
5. The War of the Spanish Succession —Petitioning Parliament.
6. The Act of Settlement.
7. The Grand Alliance.
8. Death of William III.
9. Influence of the Marlboroughs.
10. War Declared.
11. Battle of Blenheim.
12. Battle of Ramilies.
13. Closing Campaigns — Peace of Utrecht.
14. Terms of the Treaty.

1. WILLIAM's second Parliament was dissolved in July 1698. The Whigs had now regained the supremacy. Somers
1698 was Lord Chancellor, and Charles Montagu (afterwards A.D. Earl of Halifax) was First Lord of the Treasury. The new Parliament, which met in December, demanded the **reduction of the army** to 7,000 men. William wished to

retain his Dutch Guards; but even this was refused. The Commons next revoked the enormous grants of land in Ireland made to the King's Dutch favourites, and ordered them to be sold for the public benefit.

2. About this time a great change in the mode of carrying on the government was silently effected. Previously the business of the State was transacted by individual ministers, each of whom was responsible to the King, and might be dismissed by him. Now it became customary to choose the ministers in a body, called the Ministry, or **the Cabinet,**[1] from that party which had the majority in the House of Commons. This arrangement gave the Commons direct control over the government, and originated the method of government by party, which has continued ever since. The ministers thus chosen met together apart from the general Privy Council, and deliberated on and prepared the measures which were afterwards submitted to the Parliament. This is the origin of the Cabinet Council, which is a private meeting of ministers, and has no authority, indeed is nowhere formally recognized, in the Constitution.

3. The position of **the Spanish Crown** at this time caused anxiety in Europe. The King, Charles II., was childless, and was believed to be dying. There were three claimants for the throne: (1.) Louis the Dauphin, son of Louis XIV. of France; (2.) Joseph Ferdinand, son of the King of Bavaria; and (3.) the Archduke Charles, son of the Emperor Leopold. William's main desire was to prevent the union of the French and Spanish crowns. He therefore proposed a partition of the Spanish dominions, by which the crown of Spain would be given to the Bavarian Prince, while the Dauphin and the Archduke were to be bribed into acquiescence by receiving portions of Spanish territory. A **secret treaty** to this effect was signed by William and Louis in October 1698. Early in 1699 Ferdinand of Bavaria died, and the treaty became useless.

4. William and Louis made a **second partition treaty** in the spring of 1700, by which the Archduke Charles was to have

[1] *The Cabinet.*—The Earl of Sunderland is credited with the invention of Cabinets chosen in this way. From this place onward the name of the Premier for the time being is mentioned at the head of each right-hand page.

Ferdinand's portion, with the crown, and the Dauphin the remainder. Charles of Spain was indignant when he heard
1700 how his dominions were being disposed of; and, in
A.D. William's despite, he made a will bequeathing his crown and all his possessions to Philip of Anjou, the second son of the Dauphin. As this arrangement was intended to prevent the union of the French and Spanish crowns, William thought it prudent to acquiesce in it in the meantime. Charles II. died in October, and the Duke of Anjou became Philip V. of Spain.

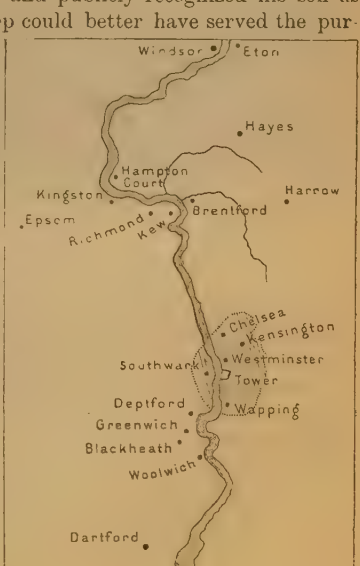
5. The Emperor Leopold prepared to vindicate the claims of his son. He took up arms against the French in Italy, and **the War of the Spanish Succession** began. The
1701 Dutch also entered into the struggle, and claimed the
A.D. aid of England. But the aspect of affairs in England had changed. In the end of 1700, the Tories, under the Earl of Rochester, came into power; and in the new Parliament they had a majority. The Whig ministers were impeached for their share in the partition treaties, which were condemned as having endangered Protestantism. At this juncture the men of Kent took the unprecedented course of **petitioning the Commons**, advising them to give up quarrelling and to vote the King the supplies he needed. Some of the petitioners were imprisoned, but the custom of petitioning was established; and quarrels ensuing between the Lords and the Commons, the impeachment was abandoned and the Parliament was dissolved.

6. This disturbed Parliament had passed one great measure—the **Act of Settlement**, rendered necessary by the
1701 death of the young Duke of Gloucester, only son of the
A.D. Princess Anne. The Act ordained that after Anne, the succession should pass to the Princess Sophia[1] of Hanover, and her heirs, being Protestants of the Church of England. The same Act provided that Judges should be appointed for life, but that they might be removed on an address of both Houses. An important safeguard to public justice was furnished in the provision that no pardon under the Great Seal should bar an impeachment by the House of Commons. Two of the provisions of this Act have since been repealed—the one

[1] *Sophia.*—She was granddaughter of James I., being daughter of Elizabeth, who married the Elector Palatine. (See *Genealogical Tree*, p. 363.)

in 1706, which prohibited persons in the pay of the Crown from sitting in the House of Commons; the other in 1717, which prevented the Sovereign from leaving Great Britain or Ireland without the consent of Parliament.

7. William had acquiesced in the settlement of the Spanish throne without approving it. What was really a triumph for Louis, his life-long rival, could not but be unsatisfactory to him. The Emperor was already in the field. William determined to join him. In September he concluded with Germany and Holland a treaty known as **the Grand Alliance**, and bent all his energies in preparation for a gigantic struggle. A few days after the treaty was signed, James II. died at St. Germain. Louis immediately and publicly recognized his son as King of England. No step could better have served the purposes of William. It excited violent indignation in England, and set the war-spirit of the people fairly on fire. The new Parliament met in December, and at once voted the King 40,000 soldiers, and the same number of sailors. William appointed the Earl of Marlborough to the command in Flanders, and was prepared to take the field himself in spring.



8. In the very midst of his preparations, and when his hopes were at the highest, **William** was suddenly cut off. Riding from Kensington[1] to Hampton Court, on February 21, 1702, he fell from his horse, and broke his collar-bone. The

[1] *Kensington.*—Then a western suburb of London, now included in it. In the palace there Queen Victoria was born in 1819.

injury was not such as would of itself have caused death; but, acting on a frame naturally feeble and worn-out by long-continued asthma, it brought on a fever even after he had been declared convalescent, of which he died at Kensington on the 8th of March. He was in his fifty-fourth year. He left no children.[1]

9. *ANNE.*[2]—William's death made no change in the policy of England. Three days after her accession, Queen Anne appointed **Marlborough** captain-general of all her forces. Marlborough's influence with the Queen was unbounded. His wife had for years been Anne's bosom-friend. In their familiar intercourse, ceremony and titles were laid aside: the Queen was Mrs. Morley; the Countess was Mrs. Freeman. Anne chose her ministers from the Tory party, which was then in the ascendant, and made Marlborough's friend, Lord Godolphin, High Treasurer and Prime Minister.

10. War was formally declared in May. Its chief theatres were Spain and the Low Countries, which have been well named "the battle-fields of modern Europe." In Spain, the principal incident of the first campaign was the destruction of a squadron of Spanish galleons[3] and French men-of-war at **Vigo.**[4] In Flanders, Marlborough took **Liège,**[5] and thus got command of the Meuse. On his return to England, he received the thanks of the House of Commons, and the Queen made him a Duke. In the following year nothing decisive was effected in any quarter; but the King of Portugal joined the allies, and so gave them ready access to the heart of Spain. The Emperor proclaimed his second son King of Spain, with the title of Charles III.

11. In 1704 Marlborough gained the first of those brilliant victories which entitle him to rank among the greatest soldiers

---

[1] Chelsea Hospital, for old and disabled soldiers, was founded by William and Mary, who also gave up their palace at Greenwich to the veterans of the navy. It was during this reign that Peter the Great of Russia worked as a ship-carpenter in the dockyard at Deptford.

[2] *Anne.*—Second daughter of James II. Married Prince George of Denmark. (He died in 1708.) Reigned 12 years.

[3] *Galleon.*—Pronounced *gal'yun* or *galoon'*; a Spanish man-of-war, with three or four decks.

[4] *Vigo.*—A sea-port in the north-west of Spain, on a bay of the same name. (See *Map*, p. 444.)

[5] *Liège.*—On the Meuse; 55 miles east of Brussels. (See *Map*, p. 344.)

of the world. He marched from Flanders across the Rhine, and into the heart of Bavaria, to succour the Emperor. At **Blen-**

GIBRALTAR—WESTERN SIDE.

heim,[1] on the north bank of the Danube, he inflicted on the French and the Bavarians a crushing defeat. Prince Eugene of Savoy commanded the right of the allies. Marshal Tallard, the French general, was taken prisoner. This victory saved Germany. Marlborough received a gift of the royal manor of Woodstock,[2] and of a splendid mansion built on it called Blenheim House. The same year witnessed one of the most important achievements of the war—the capture of **Gibraltar** by Admiral Rooke and Sir Cloudesley Shovel. Aided by a body of Hessian troops, the British,

1704 A.D.

[1] *Blenheim.*—A village of West Bavaria (Germany), on the Danube; 23 miles north-west of Augsburg.

[2] *Woodstock.*—In Oxfordshire; 8 miles north-west of Oxford, and 60 from London.

landing on the isthmus which joins the Rock[1] to the mainland, carried the works by storm in spite of a heavy fire.

12. No event of importance happened till 1706, when Marlborough defeated the French under Marshal Villeroi at **Ramilies.**[2] The tide of fortune had now turned against the French in all quarters. They were driven out of Italy by Prince Eugene, who, the next year, followed them into France. A British fleet took Majorca and Iviça. Louis, indeed, made overtures for peace, but the allies doubted his sincerity.

13. The war was therefore resumed in 1707. The Duke of Berwick,[3] at the head of the French, defeated the Earl of Galway at **Almanza,** and thereby virtually secured Spain for Philip V. Part of the English fleet, returning from Gibraltar, struck on some rocks off the Scilly Isles. Four ships were lost. Admiral Sir Cloudesley Shovel was among the drowned. In 1708 Marlborough gained a splendid victory over Marshal Vendome at **Oudenarde.**[4] The French lost 15,000 men and more than 100 banners on this field. The victors then took Lille.[5] The last great event of the war was Marl-

[1] *Rock.*—Gibraltar is a strong rock-fortress in the south of Spain. The Spaniards have made great efforts to retake it—the greatest in 1779–82; but it has never passed out of British hands. (See ROYAL READER No. VI., pp. 9–15.)

[2] *Ramilies.*—A village of South Brabant (Belgium); 26 miles south-east of Brussels. (See *Map*, p. 344.)

[3] *Duke of Berwick.*—Fitz-James, a natural son of James II. His mother was Arabella Churchill, sister of Marlborough. He was killed in 1734.

[4] *Oudenarde.*—A village of East Flanders (Belgium); 14 miles south-west of Ghent. (See *Map*, p. 344.)

[5] *Lille.*—A town of France; 30 miles south-west of Oudenarde.

borough's victory over Marshal Villars at **Malplaquet**[1] in 1709, when the victors lost 24,000 men, and the vanquished only half that number. The war lingered on till 1713, when the Peace of **Utrecht**,[2] concluded by the Tory Ministry under Harley, Earl of Oxford, brought rest to Europe.

14. The treaty abandoned the cause for which the war had been undertaken—the exclusion of the Bourbons from Spain. It was, however, provided that the French and the Spanish crown should never be united. Louis recognized the Protestant succession in England, and agreed to expel the Pretender[3] from France. England retained Gibraltar, Minorca, the Hudson Bay Territory, Newfoundland, and Nova Scotia. Dunkirk was to be dismantled. The Emperor made a separate treaty with France at **Rastadt**[4] in 1714.

1713 A.D.

QUESTIONS.—1. When was William's second Parliament dissolved? Which party had then regained the supremacy? Who were in office? When did the new Parliament meet? What did it demand? What request of William did it refuse? What step did the Commons next take?

2. How had the business of the State previously been carried on? What change was now introduced? What is said of the Cabinet Council?

3. What at this time caused anxiety in Europe? Who were the claimants for the throne? What was William's main desire? What was the object of the secret treaty with Louis? What made it useless?

4. What were the terms of the second partition treaty? What was Charles's feeling when he heard of it? What did he do? What led William to acquiesce in Charles's proposal? Who became King on Charles's death?

5. Who began the war? Who appealed to England for help? What view of the treaties did the Tories take? What innovation did the men of Kent introduce? Why was the impeachment of the Whig ministers abandoned?

6. What great measure had this disturbed Parliament passed? What were its chief provisions? Which of its provisions have since been repealed?

7. With whom did William form the Grand Alliance? What act of Louis's excited indignation in England? How did the Parliament meet William's views? Who was appointed to the command in Flanders?

8. What accident did William meet with? What tended to make it fatal? When did he die?

9. What policy did Anne adopt? Whose influence with Anne was very great? What change of Ministry did Anne make?

10. When was war formally declared? Where were its chief theatres? What was the chief incident of the first campaign in Spain? What did Marlborough effect in Flanders? How was he rewarded? What took place in 1703?

11. What great victory did Marlborough gain in 1704? Who com-

[1] *Malplaquet.*—About 9 miles south of Mons. (See *Map*, p. 344.)

[2] *Utrecht.*—Twenty-one miles south-east of Amsterdam. (See *Map*, p. 352.)

[3] *The Pretender.*—The son of James II.

[4] *Rastadt.*—In Baden; 30 miles north-east of Strasburg.

manded the right of the allies? Who was taken prisoner? What was the effect of the victory? What gift did Marlborough receive? What great stronghold was captured the same year? By whom?

12. What was the next event of importance? Who made overtures for peace? Why were they rejected?

13. What victory did the French gain in 1707? What disaster befell the English fleet in that year? What victory did Marlborough gain in 1708? What was the last great event of the war? What peace closed it? When?

14. What did the treaty abandon? What provision on that subject did it contain? What concessions did Louis make? What did England retain? When did the Emperor make peace?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. **1698.**—Peter the Great of Russia banished the **Streltzi,** having first caused them to be decimated in the Great Square of Moscow. The Streltzi were a favourite corps founded by Ivan the Terrible. Like the Janissaries in Turkey, and the Mamelukes in Egypt, they became turbulent and dangerous. Their continued disloyalty led to their final extermination in 1705.

2. **1699.**—The Peace of **Carlowitz**[1] dismembered the Turkish Empire, giving parts to Austria, Russia, Poland, and Venice. Peter the Great had formed an alliance with Austria against Turkey in 1695. Peter took Azov at the mouth of the Don in 1696, and thus gained access to the Black Sea. In 1697 the Turks were signally defeated by Prince Eugene of Savoy, the colleague of Marlborough in the War of the Spanish Succession.

3. **1700.**—**Charles XII. of Sweden,** with 8,000 men, defeated 80,000 Russians at Narva.[2] The war originated in a coälition of Denmark, Poland, and Russia to divide Sweden.

4. **1700.**—Charles II. of Spain died childless; and left, by will, his dominions to **Philip of Anjou,** grandson of Louis XIV. of France, who was proclaimed as Philip V. While Charles's death was impending, partition treaties had been made (chiefly by William III. of England) to prevent the union of the French and the Spanish crown in the same family. The accession of Philip V. was held to be a violation, not only of these treaties, but of the obligation under which Louis XIV. had come when he married Maria-Theresa. (See 1659, p. 297.) This led to the War of the Spanish Succession.

5. **1701.**—William III. of England formed a Grand Alliance to secure the Spanish throne for the Archduke Charles, son of the Emperor of Germany, in preference to Philip of Anjou. William died before war could be commenced.

6. **1701.**—Frederick III., Elector of Brandenburg and Duke of

---

[1] *Carlowitz.*—On the Danube, in the south of Austria. It is 270 miles south-east of Vienna.

[2] *Narva.*—In Russia, near the southern shore of the Gulf of Finland; 95 miles south-west of St. Petersburg.

Prussia, was made **King of Prussia**, in return for supporting the Emperor in the matter of the Spanish Succession. He also bound himself to assist Austria in all her wars.

7. **1702.**—Augustus the Strong (Elector of Saxony), King of Poland, was dethroned by **Charles XII. of Sweden.** Stanislaus Leczinski was chosen in his stead in 1704. But Augustus was restored after a civil commotion. These changes weakened Poland, and hastened its fall.

8. **1707.**—Charles XII. of Sweden invaded Russia with 80,000 men. He was defeated at Poltava[1] in 1709, and took refuge for some time in Turkey. Returning suddenly to his kingdom, he engaged in war with Norway, and was killed at the siege of Frederikshald[2] in 1718.

9. **1707.**—On the death of Aurungzebe, the Great Mogul (1658–1707), the Mogul Empire in India fell into decay, the tributary princes gradually asserting their independence.

10. **1711.—St. Petersburg** became the capital of Russia. Moscow had been the capital up till that time. Peter the Great had acquired Livonia from Sweden by his defeat of Charles XII., and thus obtained a seaboard on the Baltic.

11. **1713.**—The Treaty of **Utrecht** closed the War of the Spanish Succession. Prussia obtained an accession of territory in Western Germany, while Milan and Mantua[3] were transferred to Austria. The supplementary Treaty of Rastadt between France and the Empire in 1714 transferred the Belgian provinces of the Netherlands to Austria, as well as Naples and Sardinia.

QUESTIONS.—1. Who were the Streltzi? What bodies in Turkey and in Egypt did they resemble? How did Peter the Great deal with them? When were they finally exterminated?—2. Give the date of the Peace of Carlowitz. What empire did it dismember? What powers received parts of it? When and how did Russia gain access to the Black Sea?—3. Who gained the Battle of Narva? What was the origin of the war?—4. What King of Spain died in 1700? Who was proclaimed his successor? Why? Of what was Philip's accession held to be a violation? To what war did this lead?—5. What step did William III. take in 1701?—6. When did Prussia become a kingdom? Who was the first King? How did he obtain the title?—7. What King of Poland was dethroned in 1702? By whom? Who was chosen in his stead? How was he displaced? What effect had these changes on Poland?—8. What country did Charles of Sweden next attack? When? Where was he defeated? Where did he take refuge? Where was he killed? When?—9. What led to the decay of the Mogul Empire? After whose death did this take place? When did he die?—10. When did St. Petersburg become the capital of Russia? What had previously been the capital? What gave Russia a seaboard on the Baltic?—11. When did the War of the Spanish Succession close? With what treaty? What were its chief provisions? What treaty was supplementary to it? What did it transfer to Austria?

[1] *Poltava.*—In the south of Russia; 270 miles north-east of Odessa.

[2] *Frederikshald.*—A maritime town of Norway; 58 miles south-east of Christiania. The castle is called Frederikstein.

[3] *Milan and Mantua.*—Fortresses of Lombardy, in North Italy

CHAPTER III.

THE ASCENDENCY OF THE COMMONS.

1. Conflict of Whigs and Tories.
2. The Occasional Conformity Bill.
3. The Scottish Union.
4 Terms of the Union.
5. Effects of the Union.
6. Threatened Invasion.
7 Mrs. Masham.
8. Harley and St. John in Opposition.
9. Impeachment of Dr. Sacheverell.
10. His Trial.
11. Return of the Tories to Power
12. Fall of Marlborough.
13. Creation of Peers—Supremacy of the Commons.
14. Tory Intrigues.
15. Accession of George I.—Power of the Ministry.
16. Fall of the Tories.
17. Impeachment of the Tory Ministers.

1. During the reign of Queen Anne, the strife between **Whigs and Tories** raged more fiercely than ever around two great questions—the War and the Church. The Whigs supported the war; the Tories sought for peace. The Whigs were Low Church; the Tories were known as the High Church party The strength of the Tories lay in the House of Commons; that of the Whigs in the House of Lords. There was thus mixed up with the party warfare a struggle for supremacy between the two Houses of Parliament.

2. A measure, called the **Occasional Conformity Bill,** was brought into Parliament by the Tories. It was levelled against those who attended places of worship not of the Established Church, after they had taken the Test Oath and had received public appointments. These Occasional Conformists were to suffer dismissal and heavy fine. Marlborough supported the Bill in the hope of conciliating the Tories. It passed the Commons, but was lost in the Lords (1703). In 1704, Marlborough obtained the addition to the Ministry of Robert Harley and Henry St. John, moderate Tories, who supported his war policy. Though at heart a Tory, Marlborough was so disgusted with the Tory opposition to the war that he was forced to drift more and more toward the Whigs.

1702 A.D.

3. Such was the state of politics when a question of great importance arose—the necessity of a **Union** between the Parliaments of England and Scotland. This had been a favourite project of the Whigs ever since the Revolution. William had strongly approved it, and it had been referred to in Queen Anne's

first speech from the throne. The English Government now saw the necessity of a union being speedily effected if the two countries were not to be allowed to drift into war. The Scottish Parliament, still smarting under the disasters at Darien, had passed an *Act of Security* (1704), which decreed that the successor to the throne of Scotland, on the Queen's death, should not be the person chosen by the English Parliament, unless the commercial privileges enjoyed by England were extended to Scotland. The Scottish nation then assumed an attitude of war. At last (1706) Commissioners were appointed—thirty on each side; and by them a Treaty of Union was framed, which, although met by a storm of opposition from the people of Scotland, passed the Scottish Parliament by a majority of 41 votes (110 for, 69 against). This result was brought about by lavish bribery.

4. The chief **terms** of the Union, which took effect on May 1, 1707, were:—

a. That the Electress Sophia of Hanover, and her heirs, if Protestants, should succeed to the crown of the United Kingdom. **1707** A.D.

b. That Scotland should be represented in the Imperial Parliament, sitting in London, by sixteen elective Peers and forty-five members of the Commons.

c. That all British ports and colonies should be opened to Scottish traders.

d. That while the laws of public policy should be the same for both countries, those relating to property and private rights should be preserved unaltered, except for the good of the Scottish people.

e. That the Court of Session and other Scottish tribunals should remain unchanged.

f. That the Church of Scotland should be maintained, as already by law established.

To make up for the heavier taxes which the Union entailed on the Scottish people, a grant of £398,000 was made to improve the coinage.

5. The Union has done incalculable good to Scotland. The strong objections urged at first against the change, were the loss of independence and the increased load of taxation; but

these were only seeming evils. The commerce, the wealth, and the greatness of Scotland began to advance with rapid strides. Fishing villages became thriving sea-ports; Glasgow and Dundee sprang into great and populous cities. Among the people who, with much difficulty, managed to raise the sum of £400,000 to found the Darien Colony, there is now many a merchant-prince whose single fortune far exceeds that amount.

6. **Louis XIV.**, taking advantage of the discontent excited in Scotland by the Union, despatched a fleet from Dunkirk to set James the Pretender on the Scottish throne. But timely notice reached England; and the French admiral, finding the Firth of Forth guarded by a squadron under Sir George Byng, returned with the loss of one ship.

7. The Whigs had retained their ascendency over the Queen chiefly by the aid of Sarah, Duchess of Marlborough. But the Queen became weary of a companion who tried to have
1706 the upper-hand in everything. Abigail Hill, a relative
A.D. of Harley, had been introduced into the palace as an attendant on the Queen's person. Through this woman, better known as **Mrs. Masham,** Harley succeeded in undermining the influence of the Duchess with the Queen. At the same time he intrigued for the expulsion of the Whigs from office.

8. In retaliation, the Whigs demanded Harley's dismissal from the Ministry; and Marlborough, who was entirely dependent on the Whigs, had no choice but to force this
1708 step on the unwilling Queen. With Harley, St. John
A.D. resigned. The Tories thus obtained more vigorous leaders in the Commons, and their strength increased. **Harley and St. John** now united in denouncing Marlborough and the war. Robert Walpole took Harley's place in the Ministry, which was further strengthened by the addition of Lord Somers as President of the Council. This was a great triumph for the Whigs.

9. Ere long, however, occurred events which stirred all England into a flame in favour of the Tories. Dr. Henry **Sacheverell,**[1] rector of St. Saviour's, Southwark, had preached

[1] *Sacheverell.*—Pronounced *Sashev'erell.*

two sermons—one (August 15) at Derby, another (November 5) at St. Paul's before the Lord Mayor and Aldermen of London—in which he denounced the Revolution as an unrighteous change, maintained the duty of punishing Dissenters, and called on the people to defend their Church, which was in imminent danger. The Government, against the advice of Marlborough, resolved on his impeachment for uttering seditious libels; and the case came before the Lords. **1709** A.D.

10. The trial lasted three weeks. All the clergy and the mass of the people were for Sacheverell. The Queen attended the trial privately, to give him encouragement. Bishop Atterbury wrote his defence. Every day, as he drove to and from the court, his coach was followed by cheering mobs; whose feelings, not content with this display, found further vent in the destruction of churches, and in riots that filled the streets with alarm. Sacheverell was found guilty, and forbidden to preach for three years. The sermons were burned in front of the Royal Exchange. **Feb. 27, 1710** A.D.

11. This punishment, inflicted by a Whig House of Lords, was regarded as a **triumph for the Tories.** Before the end of the year, Godolphin and Sunderland were dismissed (August). Harley and St. John came into office. In the new Parliament, which met in November, the Tory Ministry had a decided majority. One of its first measures was to pass the **Act against Occasional Conformity.** Marlborough was retained in his command, as the war was still going on; but his Duchess was dismissed from her offices at Court, and he was marked for disgrace.

12. In the spring of 1711, Marlborough left, as usual, for the Continent to open the campaign. During his absence, and without his knowledge, the Ministry opened negotiations for peace with the French Government. Marlborough returned in October, to find himself ruined. He had still influence with the House of Lords, which denounced the proposed peace. But the support of the Queen, the Commons, and the people, enabled Harley (now Earl of Oxford) to triumph. **Marlborough** and Walpole were charged with dishonest practices. The former was dismissed in disgrace **1711** A.D.

from all his offices. The latter was expelled from the House of Commons.

13. The peace negotiations opened at Utrecht in January 1712. The project was still denounced by the majority of the House of Lords, led by Marlborough. To neutralize this opposition, the Ministry **created twelve new Peers**, and thus obtained a majority of the Lords in favour of the proposed terms of peace. This step marks an era in our constitutional history. The Revolution had placed the Parliament above the King, but neither House of Parliament could claim to be above the other. Harley's creation of Peers gave the supremacy once for all to the Lower House. Nothing that the Lords could do could alter the relation of parties in the Commons. Here was a perfectly constitutional plan, whereby the Ministry for the time being, which had the confidence of the majority of the Commons, could at once alter the relation of parties in the House of Lords. On subsequent occasions, it has been enough for the Ministry to threaten this measure, and the Lords have at once given way. Thus the ascendency of the Commons was established. Thenceforth the greatest Ministers have been Commoners.

1712 A.D.

14. Marlborough,[1] deeming further resistance useless, retired first to Blenheim, then to the Continent, where he was received with princely honours. The Treaty of Utrecht was signed on the last day of March 1713. This was a great triumph for the Tories; but the victory was short-lived. When the terms of the treaty became known in England, they were deemed a poor return for Marlborough's successes. Oxford and St. John (now Viscount Bolingbroke) were, besides, known to be favourable to the Pretender, and this destroyed the credit of the whole Tory party. After the death of the Princess Sophia, in 1714, when her son George-Louis became heir-apparent, **Bolingbroke and the Jacobites** intrigued for the accession of James. They were not without hopes of success. Bolingbroke, who had long been Oxford's secret enemy, now drove him from office. Everything was in

1713 A.D.

[1] *Marlborough.*—He returned to England on the death of Queen Anne. He was coldly received at Court, but was restored to his post of captain-general. He died in 1722, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

train for a Jacobite rising, when the Queen was suddenly struck down with apoplexy (July 29). The Jacobites were taken by surprise. Anne was induced, by moderate men of both parties, to intrust the conduct of affairs to the Duke of Shrewsbury, a Tory, but a Hanoverian. She died the next day (August 1).[1] **1714** A.D.

15. *GEORGE I.*[2]—The Elector of Hanover was at once proclaimed King, with the title of George I. He was fifty-four years of age, and was imperfectly acquainted with the English language. There was very little sympathy between him and the English people. Though he wore the crown of England, he left the government entirely in the hands of **the Ministry,** which, therefore, acquired more power than it had ever had before.

16. George's favour for **the Whigs,** to whom he owed his accession, was soon apparent. The Tory Ministry was dismissed. The Earl of Halifax was made First Lord of the Treasury; but the real head of the Government was Charles, Viscount Townshend, Secretary of State. Robert Walpole, Townshend's brother-in-law, was Paymaster of the Forces.

17. A secret committee of the Commons, of which Walpole was chairman, sat to inquire into the conduct of the late ministers, with regard to the Treaty of Utrecht. Oxford, Bolingbroke, and Ormond,[3] against all of whom there were strong suspicions of a secret correspondence with the Pretender, were impeached for high treason. Oxford was sent to the Tower, and his head was saved only by a difference between the Lords and the Commons. Bolingbroke[4] and Ormond fled to the Continent, where they joined the councils of the Pretender. The Tories did not return to power for more than a generation.

---

[1] In 1703 the Eddystone light-house was swept away by a storm, when Winstanley, the architect, perished. St. Paul's Cathedral was finished in 1710. It cost about a million sterling, and was 35 years in building.

[2] *George I.* — Son of the Electress Sophia, and great-grandson of James I. Married Sophia-Dorothea of Zell, whom he kept for thirty years shut up in a castle in Hanover. Reigned 13 years. First King of the House of Brunswick.

[3] *Ormond.*—James Butler, Duke of, (1665–1747).

[4] *Bolingbroke* became the Pretender's chief adviser. Having quarrelled with James, he was allowed to return to England in 1723; but he was not permitted to enter Parliament. He exercised great political influence personally and through the press.

QUESTIONS.—1. On what two questions did Whigs and Tories fight in Queen Anne's time? What side did each take on each question? Where did the strength of the Tories lie? Where, that of the Whigs? What was mixed up with the party warfare?

2. What measure was introduced by the Tories? What was its object? Why did Marlborough support it? What was its fate? Who were added to the Ministry in 1704? To which party did Marlborough at heart belong? What led him to drift toward the other party?

3. What question arose at that time? With whom had that been a favourite project? Why was it now deemed necessary? What position had the Scottish Parliament taken up? When were commissioners appointed? Who opposed the Treaty of Union? How was it carried in the Scottish Parliament? By what majority?

4. When did the Union take effect? What were the six chief terms of the treaty? What grant of money was made to Scotland? Why?

5. What has been the effect of the Union on Scotland?

6. How did Louis XIV. take advantage of the discontent excited in Scotland by the Union. What was the result of the expedition?

7. By whose means had the Whigs retained their ascendency over the Queen? To whom was Mrs. Masham related? What did Harley effect through her? For what did he at the same time intrigue?

8. How did the Whigs retaliate? Who resigned along with Harley? How was this a gain to the Tories? In what did Harley and St. John now join? Who succeeded Harley in the Ministry? How was it further strengthened?

9. What was the effect of events which soon occurred? With whom were these events connected? How had he made himself liable to impeachment? Who opposed this course? Who resolved on it?

10. How long did the trial last? How was Sacheverell encouraged? What was his sentence?

11. How was this punishment regarded? What changes took place in the Ministry? Who had a majority in the new Parliament? What was one of its first measures? How were the Marlboroughs treated?

12. What step did the Ministry take during Marlborough's absence? What enabled Oxford to triumph? With what were Marlborough and Walpole charged? How was each punished?

13. When and where were the peace negotiations opened? By whom was the peace still denounced? How did the Ministry neutralize this influence? Why does great importance attach to this step? What did it establish?

14. Where did Marlborough go? When was the Treaty of Utrecht signed? For whom was it a triumph? When did a change come? Into what intrigue did Bolingbroke enter? What frustrated his plans? For whom was the Queen induced to send? When did she die?

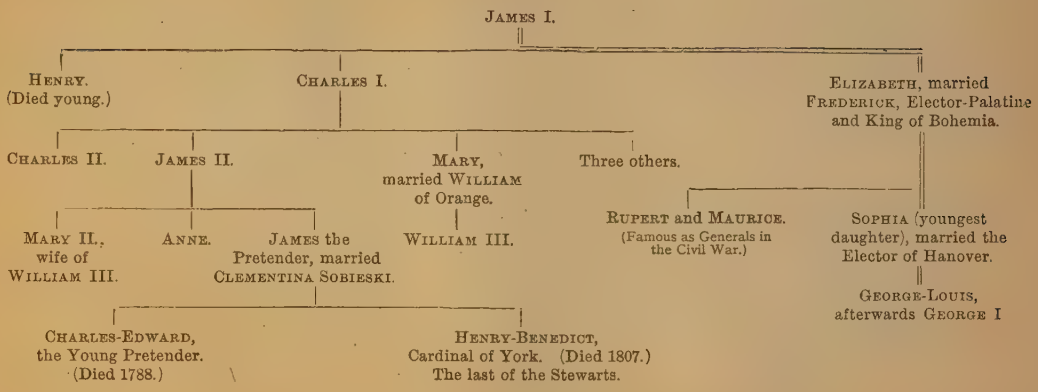
15. Who was proclaimed King? How old was he? How did his position tend to increase the power of the Ministry?

16. Which party did George favour? Why? Who was the real head of the new Government? What post had Walpole?

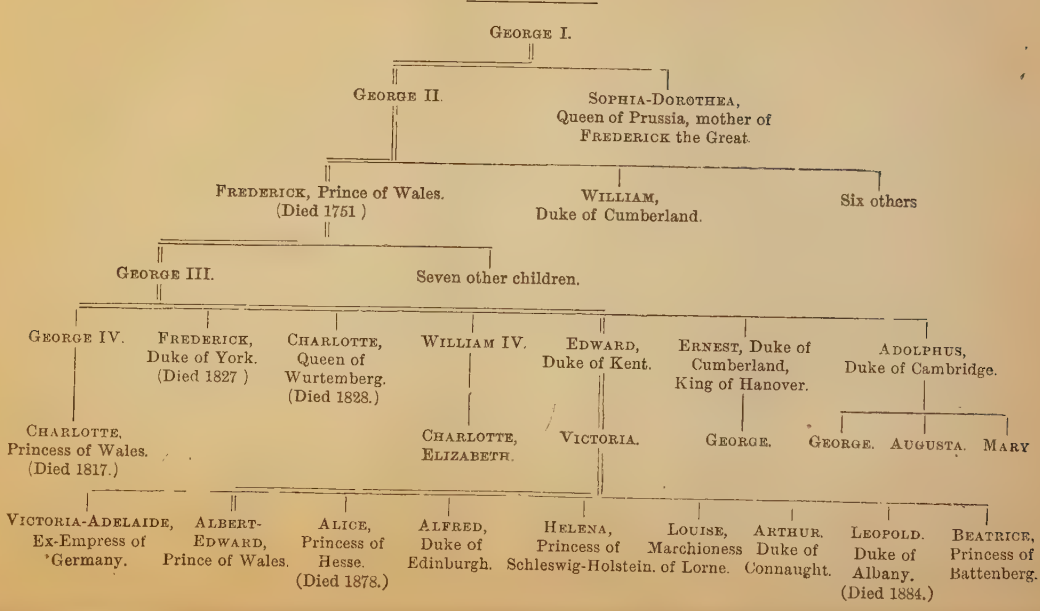
17. For what purpose was a secret committee of the Commons appointed? Who were impeached? How did Oxford escape with his life? What became of Bolingbroke and Ormond?

GENEALOGICAL TREE

CONNECTING THE STEWARTS WITH THE HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK.



GENEALOGY OF THE HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK.



CHAPTER IV.

THE 'FIFTEEN—THE SOUTH SEA BUBBLE.

1. The Riot Act.
2. The Pretender in France.
3. The Beginning of the 'Fifteen.
4. The Pretender in Scotland.
5. Collapse of the Rebellion.
6. The Septennial Act.
7. Foreign Politics
8. The Quadruple Alliance.
9. The South Sea Scheme.
10. Plan of the Company.
11. The Mania at its Height.
12. The Bubble Burst.
13. Walpole's Scheme of Liquidation.

1. THERE was a considerable party in the nation favourable to the Tories. Riots of Whig and Tory mobs took place in several towns. The men of Staffordshire assembled in crowds to applaud Jacobite speeches. The Government, however, acted promptly. The **Riot Act**, which had been passed in Queen Mary's time, was reënacted and made permanent. By this measure, any crowd of more than twelve persons, which refused to disperse in a given time, might be scattered by military force. The army and the navy were made ready for war. Lord Halifax died in May, and Walpole became First Lord of the Treasury in October. **1715** A.D.

2. The alarm of the King and his ministers was not without foundation. In defiance of the Treaty of Utrecht, the Pretender was in France, busily engaged in preparing for a descent on Scotland with the help of Louis XIV. In the midst of these preparations Louis died. This was a fatal blow to the prospects of the Pretender, for it was evident that the French Government would have enough to do in repairing the shattered resources of the country. But it was too late to draw back. Within a few days after the death of Louis, the flame of rebellion was actually kindled both in Scotland and in England.

3. The Earl of Mar had gathered 10,000 clansmen around him at Braemar,[1] and held all the Highlands for James; while the Duke of Argyle, with a Royalist army, strongly posted at Stirling, watched all his movements. The Jacobites of Northumberland had been called to arms by the Earl of Derwentwater and Mr. Forster, the member **1715** A.D.

[1] *Braemar.*—More correctly, Castletown of Braemar, a village in the old district of Mar; 52 miles south-west of Aberdeen.

for the county; but few of them had obeyed the summons. They were aided by 1,800 Highlanders, a reïnforcement from Mar, and were joined by a few lords of the Scottish Border. But the Royalist troops, forcing Forster into the town of *Preston* in Lancashire, there compelled him to surrender. On the same day, at

Nov. 13, 1715 A.D. **Sheriffmuir**[1] in Perthshire, Argyle inflicted, not an absolute defeat, but a severe check upon Mar, who after the engagement retreated hastily to Perth.

4. The **Pretender,** who was called on the Continent the Chevalier de St. George, resolving to see what his presence in the native land of the Stewarts would do, landed at **Dec. 22.** Peterhead;[2] but with no money, no troops, no warlike stores. He found his party broken and dispirited; and his arrival without the aid from France which had been so eagerly looked for, cast a deeper gloom over the Stewart cause.

5. At Perth he frivolously wasted many days in preparing for his coronation, while the crown was yet to be won. Amid his dreams of a splendour never to be realized, he heard that Argyle was advancing; and he retreated northward towards Montrose, where he and Mar embarked for France, leaving the army to its fate. The Earl of Derwentwater, Lord Kenmure, and about twenty others, suffered death; the estates of many were confiscated; and more than a thousand were banished to North America. Thus ended **"The 'Fifteen."** Its effect on political parties was to discredit the Tories, and greatly to strengthen the Government.

Feb. 4, 1716 A.D.

---

[1] *Sheriffmuir.* - In the south of Perthshire; 8 miles north-east of Stirling.

[2] *Peterhead.*—On the coast of Aberdeenshire; 27 miles north of Aberdeen.

6. Nevertheless the Whigs dreaded the consequences to which a general election might lead, in the excited state of the country. They therefore passed the **Septennial Act**, extending the possible duration of Parliaments to seven years. The Parliament then sitting had met on March 21, 1715, and was not dissolved till March 10, 1722. Very few subsequent Parliaments, however, have lasted a longer period than six years. Nevertheless the Act has had a good effect in preserving the peace of the country, and in giving stability to trade.

7. For the sake of Hanover, George embroiled England with **Sweden** and with **Spain.** He had in 1716 bought from the King of Denmark the Duchy of Bremen,[1] which Charles of Sweden claimed as his own. A dispute followed, and war seemed certain. The Swedish minister intrigued with the Jacobites, but no active steps were taken. Early in 1717 the King asked for large supplies to prepare for a Swedish war. The vote was carried in the Commons by the narrow majority of four. Some of Townshend's known adherents having voted in the minority, he was dismissed from office. Walpole resigned next day; and General (afterwards Earl) **Stanhope** became head of the Government, with Joseph Addison, the celebrated writer, as one of the Secretaries of State. In March 1718 Addison resigned; and the Ministry was reconstructed, with the Earl of Sunderland as Premier, and Stanhope as Secretary of State. **1716** A.D.

8. The **Quadruple Alliance**[2] was then formed, by which Germany, England, France, and Holland leagued themselves against Philip of Spain, who had interfered with the Italian interests of the Emperor. Admiral Byng destroyed the Spanish fleet off Cape Passaro.[3] In retaliation, Alberoni, the Spanish minister, sent an expedition to invade Scotland in favour of the Pretender; but a storm having shattered the fleet, this miniature Armada failed in its object. Soon afterwards, Alberoni—a prince among in- **1718** A.D.

[1] *Bremen.* — Not the Free City so called, but an old German duchy, originally a bishopric, in Hanover, on the border of Oldenburg. *Verden* was the chief town in the Duchy of Bremen. It is 40 miles north-west of Hanover.

[2] *Quadruple Alliance.*—A triple alliance, to which England, France, and Holland were the parties, had been formed against Spain in 1717.

[3] *Cape Passaro.*—The most southerly point of Sicily.

triguers—was dismissed from office and banished from Spain; and Philip, worsted by land and by sea, sought peace from the four allies (1720).

9. In 1719 the scheme of the Mississippi Company, by which paper money was to take the place of gold and silver, set on foot in Paris by Law, a Scottish banker, had ruined thousands by its utter failure. In the following year the **South Sea Scheme** set all England crazy. The National Debt then amounted to £53,000,000. The Government was obliged to pay to all who had lent the money, that is, who had invested money in the funds, interest at the rate of six per cent.; which came to £3,180,000 in the year. This was a heavy burden on a yearly revenue of £8,000,000; and to remove or lessen the debt became the grand problem which occupied the financiers of the day.

1720 A.D.

10. The Bank of England and the South Sea Company proposed plans to accomplish this object. The offers of the South Sea Company were accepted by the Government. The Company agreed to redeem the public debt in twenty-six years, if certain trading privileges were granted to it. It took over annuities amounting to £800,000 a year, paying the Government seven and a half million sterling. The Company proposed to pay off the annuitants in South Sea stock, tempting them with extravagant promises of interest.

11. Stories of the treasure to be drawn from golden islands in the Pacific found eager listeners everywhere. Hundreds rushed to the offices of the Company to exchange their Government stock for shares in the scheme. Rich men and poor widows, statesmen and errand-boys, jostling each other in the race for gold, paid their money across the counter, and received from the clerks pieces of paper which they fondly believed would secure to them the possession of twenty-fold riches. The Company promised a dividend of fifty per cent. at least, and the shares rose rapidly. The excitement became a mania which infected thousands. Men paid away £1,000 for the chance of the profits which £100 might bring from the South Seas.

12. The most ridiculous joint-stock companies were started in imitation of the great scheme;—one for extracting silver from lead, another for making salt-water fresh, a third for import-

ing asses from Spain. The South Sea directors, armed with an Act of Parliament, crushed these rival companies; but amid the smaller failures their own gigantic **bubble burst.** The eyes of the nation were opened. All ran to sell the South Sea stock; none would buy. The offices were closed, and thousands became ruined bankrupts.

13. **Sir Robert Walpole,**[1] who had all along cried out against the huge gambling transaction, now came forward to save the public credit. His plan was to divide the losses, and thus to make the pressure on the nation less. Nine million of South Sea stock were assigned to the Bank of England, nine more to the East India Company, while the Government gave up the greater part of their bonus of seven and a half million. Though the alarm was lessened, and the loss somewhat equalized, penniless crowds cried for vengeance on the rulers who had led them into the snare. Sunderland the Premier and Aislabie the Chancellor of the Exchequer resigned office. The estates of the directors were sold and were applied in compensating the shareholders; but many a desolate home, many a broken heart, many a suicide's grave, remained to mark the traces of the broken bubble.

QUESTIONS.—1. What led to the re-enactment of the Riot Act? What were its provisions? For what were preparations made by the Government?

2. What ground was there for the alarm of the Government? What was a fatal blow to the Pretender's prospects? What happened within a few days thereafter?

3. Who held the Highlands? With what force? Who watched him? Who had called the men of Northumberland to arms? With what issue? What was the result of the Battle of Sheriffmuir? Its date?

4. Where did the Pretender land? In what state did he find his party?

5. How did he waste time at Perth? Where did he reëmbark? With whom? Who suffered death for this rebellion? What is it called? What effect had it on political parties?

6. What is the Septennial Act? Which party passed it? Why? What good did it effect?

7. With what foreign states was England embroiled? How with Sweden? With whom did the Swedish minister intrigue? Why was Townshend dismissed? Who resigned next day? Who then became head of the Government? What man of letters had a place in it? Who became Premier when he retired?

8. What alliance was then formed? Who were parties to it? Against whom?

[1] *Walpole.*—He had joined the Sunderland Ministry (along with Lord Townshend) in 1720. Previously he had regained the favour of the King by procuring the rejection of the Peerage Limitation Bill,—a Bill to limit the power of the King to create Peers. He had also brought about a reconciliation between George and the Prince of Wales.

What victory did Byng gain? How did the Spaniards retaliate? What was its fate? How was Alberoni treated? When did Philip make peace?

9. What scheme ruined thousands in 1719? What scheme excited England in the following year? What was the amount of the National Debt? To what did the annual interest amount? What became the grand problem of financiers?

10. Whose scheme with this object was accepted? What agreement did the Company make with the Government? What amount of annuities did the former take over? What did it pay the Government? What did it propose to the annuitants?

11. How was the proposal received? What dividend was promised? To what price did the shares rise?

12. Mention some of the companies started in imitation of the great scheme? What led to the ruin of the latter?

13. Who came forward to save the public credit? What was his plan? What ministers resigned office? How were the directors punished?

CHAPTER V.

WALPOLE IN POWER.

1. Character of Walpole.
2. Deposition of Atterbury
3. The Schemes of Bolingbroke.
4. Wood's Halfpence.
5. Impeachment of Macclesfield
6. Pulteney and the Patriots.
7. Walpole and Queen Caroline.
8. Continuance of Walpole's Power.
9. The Excise Bill.
10. The Porteous Riot.
11. Mob Law.
12. Walpole's Power Shaken
13. The Spanish War
14. Anson's Voyage round the World
15. The Methodists.
16. Fall of Walpole

1. **Robert Walpole**[1] now entered on a long tenure of power. For nearly twenty years he continued to direct the Government. He was a man of little learning, rough and boisterous in his manners and in his life; but he held his great power with a passionate grasp, and preserved it, not very honestly, indeed, but with consummate tact. Bribery was the secret of his long reign as Premier. He is credited with the saying, "Every man has his price." To some he gave titles of honour, coronets, ribbons, or stars; to others places of profit or of power; and among the general mass of members of the Commons he scattered gold without stint. In governing by corruption, however, he was simply following the disgraceful custom of his time. His chief talent lay in finance. To his wise measures England owed great advances in her commerce and her manufactures.

1721 A.D.

2. One of the first troubles with which Walpole had to deal

[1] *Robert Walpole*.—Born 1676; entered Parliament, 1700; Premier, 1721–1742; then made Earl of Orford; died 1745.

was a Jacobite plot. **Francis Atterbury,** the restless Bishop of Rochester, who had stood by Sacheverell during the crisis of his trial, and who had refused to sign the address of the Bishops to George on his accession, intrigued for the return of the Pretender. The Jacobites asked aid from the Regent Orleans, and he betrayed their intentions **1722** to the British Government. Walpole, on receipt of A.D. this information, proceeded to take active measures, directing his chief energy against the Bishop. The *Habeas Corpus* Act was suspended. A Bill of Pains and Penalties passed through both Houses, sentencing Atterbury to deprivation and exile. The last years of his life, spent in France,[1] were devoted to scheming both in favour of James and in favour of his own return to England.

3. The schemes of **Bolingbroke** to get back to England put Walpole in a most unpleasant position. At the solicitation of the King, the minister lent his name to the reversal of the exile's forfeiture, little dreaming that he was pre- **1723** paring future trouble for himself. Throwing himself A.D. vigorously into the Tory Opposition, Bolingbroke began, under the name of Humphrey Oldcastle, to write bitter articles against Walpole in the columns of *The Craftsman.* But Walpole's power remained unshaken.

4. Ireland was then convulsed by a trifling question. The Duchess of Kendal, having obtained from Sunderland a patent for supplying that country with copper coin, sold it to a mine-proprietor named Wood. Under the **1724** viceroyalty of the Duke of Grafton, Wood, armed with A.D. the patent, proceeded to send his coin across the Channel. The *Drapier Letters,* from the vigorous pen of Swift, the Dean of St. Patrick's, encouraged the feeling against it. Lord Carteret, succeeding Grafton, tried in vain to force **Wood's halfpence** into circulation. There was no valid objection to the coins, but so strong was the popular prejudice against them that ultimately peace could be restored only by annulling the patent, and compensating Wood with a pension.

---

[1] Atterbury died at Paris in 1731; but his body was buried in Westminster Abbey

5. A notable domestic event of the later years of George I. was the trial of **Lord Chancellor Macclesfield** for corruption and extortion in the discharge of his high office. Impeached at the bar of the Lords, and declared guilty, he was fined £30,000, and was sent to the Tower till the fine was paid.

6. It was the misfortune of Robert Walpole to estrange from his party many of the ablest men of the day. **William Pulteney,**[1] doubly armed with great riches and great rhetorical power, followed his star consistently and long. But when he found, on Walpole's accession to power, that his devotion was rewarded merely with a second-rate post in the House-

1725 A.D. hold, he grew cool towards the Premier. In 1725 he flung himself into the ranks of the Opposition, where he became the head of the party known as **the Patriots,** formed of those Whigs who disliked the policy of Walpole.

7. The **death of George I.,** who was seized with apoplexy while travelling in his coach to Osnabrück,[2] shook the

June 11, **1727** A.D. stability of the Walpole Administration. The Premiership was offered to and declined by Sir Spencer Compton. Walpole found a true and stanch friend in the new Queen, Caroline of Anspach. By her influence over her husband, she succeeded in retaining for the country the services of the man who could humour the temper of the nation better than any of his contemporaries.[3]

8. *GEORGE II.*[4]—The new King had reached the ripe age of forty-four. Like his mother, with whom he sympathized, he had been jealously exiled from the English Court. One advantage which he possessed over his father was that he could speak the English tongue. **The Whigs** retained the ascendency, and in the new Parliament, which met in January 1728, Walpole had a decided majority.

---

[1] *William Pulteney.* — Born 1682; defended Walpole with great eloquence in 1712; broke from him in 1725; made Earl of Bath, 1743; died 1764.

[2] *Osnabrück.* — Seventy-four miles south-west of Hanover.

[3] The most note-worthy points of progress during the reign of George I. are the invention of Fahrenheit's thermometer; the introduction of silk-throwing machines by Lombe, who brought the plans from Italy; experiments in inoculation, which were tried at first on criminals; and the earliest casting of types in England.

[4] *George II* — Son of George I. Married Caroline of Anspach Reigned 33 years.

9. The first great battle of Walpole's Administration was fought over his **Excise Bill.** The Customs are duties paid by importers on certain foreign productions when landed on our shores. The Excise is an inland tax levied on articles manufactured at home, and paid generally by the dealers. To check smuggling, which was now practised to an incredible extent, Walpole proposed to bring wine and tobacco under the law of Excise. The merchants set up a cry of ruin. This cry was loudly echoed by the Opposition. The Patriots imagined that they saw in the measure a scheme by which the Premier meant to create a whole army of excisemen, whose votes would carry the day in every election. When the cautious minister saw the violence of the storm, content to lose his point rather than risk his power, he withdrew the Bill.[1] The Opposition, exulting in their success, strove the next session to repeal the Septennial Act; but the attempt failed.

1733 A.D.

10. In 1736 all Scotland was agitated by the **Porteous Riot.**[2] The mob of Edinburgh, enraged at the execution of a smuggler named Wilson, who had roused their admiration by helping a fellow-prisoner named Robertson to escape, pelted the hangman and the soldiers. Captain Porteous, commander of the City Guard, ordered his men to fire on the crowd, and several were killed. For this he was sentenced to death; but a reprieve came from London, and the rumour spread that in a few days he would receive a full pardon.

11. It was resolved that he should not escape. On the night of the 17th of September, the jail in which he lay was broken open by a mob; and he was brought out and hanged on a dyer's pole. The Government, on learning of this violence, brought in a Bill to demolish the walls and take away the charter of Edinburgh. So spirited, however, was the resistance of the Scottish members that the measure was abandoned, though not until it had excited among all classes in Scotland a feeling of deep rancour and hostility towards England.

---

[1] In this, as in most of his financial schemes, Walpole was in advance of his age. All his proposals have been carried out since his time.

[2] *Porteous Riot.*—This riot is graphically described by Sir Walter Scott in one of his most famous novels—*The Heart of Mid-Lothian.*

12. The death of Queen Caroline in 1737 deprived Walpole of a warm friend and supporter. Besides the ill-will of the King, and the hatred of Frederick, Prince of Wales, who had joined the Patriots and was caballing against his father, Walpole had to contend against a brilliant phalanx of literary men, among whom were Thomson,[1] Johnson,[2] Swift,[3] and Pope.[4] The disasters of the Spanish War, also, although he entered on it against his will, shook Walpole's power past retrieving.

13. The **Spanish War** was occasioned by the cruisers of Spain claiming and using the right to search all British vessels suspected of smuggling on the coasts of Spanish America. Walpole tried negotiation, but in vain; and war was proclaimed. When he heard the London joy-bells ringing for the declaration of the war, he was heard to mutter,—"They may ring their bells now; they will soon be wringing their hands." The town of Portobello on the Isthmus of Darien was taken; but disasters soon eclipsed this brief success. A great fleet and army under Admiral Vernon and Lord Wentworth failed in an attack on Carthagena,[5] chiefly through the disagreement of the leaders. The unhealthy climate swept off the British in hundreds; and there arose great discontent at home.

1739 A.D.

1741 A.D.

14. Commodore **Anson** was sent with a squadron to relieve Vernon; but, failing in his object, he sailed into the South Seas, plundered Paita, a port of Chili, and, after three years' cruising, took a Spanish treasure-ship bound for Manilla,[6] laden with £300,000. He returned to England in 1744 with a solitary ship, having **sailed round the world.** The people, dazzled by the wealth he brought more than by his great achievement, received him with joy. He was subsequently made a peer.

---

[1] *Thomson,* (James,) author of *The Seasons;* born 1700; died 1748. (See list of Authors, p. 403.)

[2] *Johnson,* (Samuel,) the lexicographer and critic, author of *Lives of the Poets;* born 1709; died 1784.

[3] *Swift,* (Jonathan,) Dean of St. Patrick's, Dublin; already referred to as author of the *Drapier Letters;* author of *Gulliver's Travels;* born 1667; died 1745.

[4] *Pope,* (Alexander,) a great poet; author of the *Essay on Man,* and a translation of Homer's *Iliad;* born 1688; died 1744

[5] *Carthagena.*—A fortified sea-port of the Granadian Confederation (South America). It is about 200 miles north-east of the Gulf of Darien.

[6] *Manilla.*—Chief town of the Philippine Islands, in the East Indian Archipelago.

15. The **Methodists**[1] arose within the Established Church about this time. The founder of the body was John Wesley.[2] When a student at Oxford, he used to hold meetings for prayer in his college-rooms; and carrying into the world the same spirit of practical piety, he soon became a celebrated preacher. He was zealously aided by George Whitfield,[3] a yet more distinguished preacher, whose stirring eloquence captivated thousands.

16. The persistent attacks on Walpole by the Opposition, led by Pulteney, and supported by William Pitt[4]—who had been in Parliament for six years, and was making his great power felt—were now producing their effect in the country. When a new Parliament met in December 1741, the Premier found that his majority had almost disappeared. As he was not prepared to carry on the Government with a merely nominal majority, **Walpole resigned** in February following, and received the title of Earl of Orford.[5] Compton, now Earl of Wilmington, became Premier; but Lord Carteret, one of Pitt's bitterest foes, was the ruling spirit in the Cabinet. On Wilmington's death in the end of 1743, Walpole had sufficient influence with the King to effect the removal of Carteret. **The Pelhams**[6] then took the helm of the State, which, partly by aristocratic influence and partly by bribery, they contrived to hold nearly as long as Walpole had done.

1742 A.D.

QUESTIONS.—1. How long did Walpole continue in power? What kind of man was he? What was the secret of his long continuance in office? In what did his chief talent lie?

2. What was one of the first troubles with which Walpole had to deal? What bishop took part in the plot? What measures did Walpole take?

3. How did Bolingbroke annoy Walpole after his return to England? What effect had these attacks on Walpole's power?

4. What was the cause of the disturbance about Wood's halfpence? How did it end? Who wrote the "Drapier Letters"? With what view? How did the affair end?

---

[1] *Methodists.*—They were so called from the strictness and regularity of their lives.

[2] *John Wesley.*—Born 1703; died 1791.

[3] *George Whitfield.*—Born 1714; died in the United States in 1770.

[4] *William Pitt.*—Born 1708; entered Parliament 1735; period of his greatest power, 1757–61; again Premier in 1766, when he was made Earl of Chatham; died 1778.

[5] A secret committee of members of Parliament prepared and brought against Walpole charges of peculation and extravagance; but the House of Commons rejected them.

[6] *The Pelhams.*—Henry Pelham and his brother, Thomas Pelham, the Duke of Newcastle.

5. Of what was Lord Macclesfield accused? What was the result?

6. What estranged Pulteney from Walpole? Of what party did he become the head?

7. How did the death of George I. affect Walpole's power? By whose influence was he retained in power?

8. How old was the new King? Which party retained the ascendency? Who had a majority in the new Parliament?

9. Over what was the first great battle of Walpole's Administration fought? What was the object of the Bill? Who opposed it? What was Walpole obliged to do? In what did the Opposition fail the next session?

10. What was the occasion of the Porteous Riot? What was Porteous's offence? Of what were the people apprehensive?

11. What step did they take to prevent his escape? How did the Government propose to punish Edinburgh? Who prevented that?

12. When did Queen Caroline die? What other difficulties beset Walpole?

13. What was the origin of the Spanish War? What did Walpole say when he heard the joy-bells ringing? What success was achieved? What disasters followed?

14. Who was sent to relieve Vernon? When did he return to England? What feat had he accomplished?

15. Who was the founder of the Methodists? Who aided him?

16. Whose attacks began to tell against Walpole? What was the state of parties in the Parliament of 1741? When did Walpole resign? With what title did he retire? What changes in the Ministry followed?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. **1718.**—Alberoni, the Spanish minister, tried to overturn the treaties of Utrecht (1713) and Rastadt (1714), and to regain Sardinia and Sicily. This led to a **Quadruple Alliance** of England, France, Germany, and Holland, against Spain. Philip of Spain dismissed Alberoni, and saved Europe from war.

2. 1720.—The Emperor received the Two Sicilies from the Duke of Savoy, who received in exchange Sardinia, with the title of King Victor-Amadeus I. His descendant, the King of Sardinia, became King of Italy in 1861.

3. 1721.—After the death of Charles XII. of **Sweden**, his kingdom was **dismembered**, parts going to Russia, Prussia, and Hanover. Sweden then lost also her position as a great power in Europe. In the same year the Duchy of Schleswig was "inalienably" incorporated with Denmark.

4. 1724. The Emperor Charles VI. issued a **Pragmatic Sanction,**[1] which was guaranteed by the leading States of Europe, decreeing that in the absence of male issue his dominions (Hungary, Bohemia, and Austria) should descend to his daughter, Maria-Theresa. (See 1740, p. 385.)

5. 1735.—Don Carlos, son of Philip V. of Spain, wrested Naples from

---

[1] *Pragmatic Sanction.*—An imperial decree, or ordinance. Several famous decrees of the Kings of France and Emperors of Germany are so called.

Austria, and became King of the Two Sicilies. This was the beginning of the Bourbon dominion in Italy, which came to an end in 1861.

QUESTIONS.—1. Who tried to overturn the treaties of Utrecht and Rastadt? When? With what view? What was formed in consequence? How did Philip of Spain save Europe from war?—2. Who became King of Sardinia in 1720? How did he obtain Sardinia? From whom? What did his descendant become in 1861?—3. When was Sweden dismembered? What powers received parts of it? What position did Sweden then lose? What province was at the same time incorporated with Denmark?—4. What is a pragmatic sanction? When did the Emperor Charles VI. issue one? By whom was it guaranteed? What did it decree?—5. What was the beginning of the Bourbon dominion in Italy? When did it come to an end?

CHAPTER VI.

THE 'FORTY-FIVE.

1. The War of the Austrian Succession.
2. Dettingen and Fontenoy
3. Landing of Charles Edward.
4. The Prince at Holyrood.
5. Cope at Dunbar.
6. Battle of Prestonpans.
7. Inactivity of Charles.
8. Invasion of England.
9. Derby—The Return
10. Falkirk.
11. Culloden Moor.
12. The Highland Onset.
13. Flight of the Prince.
14. His Wanderings.
15. His Hardships.
16. His Escape to France.
17. The Sufferers.
18. The Last of the Royal Stewarts.
19. The Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.

1. WHILE Walpole was yet in power, a new European war —**the War of the Austrian Succession**—had broken out. Charles VI. of Austria, dying in 1740, left a will called the *Pragmatic Sanction*, by which he bequeathed all his dominions to his daughter Maria-Theresa. Scarcely had she ascended the throne when the Elector of Bavaria demanded the crown of Hungary, Frederick II. of Prussia seized Silesia, and Louis of France denied her right to any part of her inheritance. The British were alarmed at this union of France with Prussia, which, under Frederick the Great, was fast rising to be one of the leading powers in Europe; and their chivalry was roused at the thought of a young and beautiful Queen surrounded by greedy and treacherous foes, even while she still wore mourning for her father.

2. The States of Hungary gathered around their Queen, and a British army crossed the Channel in her defence. George II.

leading the British troops in person,—the last occasion on which a Sovereign of Britain was under fire,—routed a
1743 French army near the village of **Dettingen**[1] on the
A.D. Main. Two years later (1745), at **Fontenoy**[2] in Belgium, his second son, the Duke of Cumberland, was defeated by Marshal Saxe in almost the only victory won by the armies of Louis XV.

3. England, however, was more affected by an episode of this war—**the 'Forty-five**—than by the main current of events on the Continent. As an act of retaliation, France encouraged the exiled Stewarts to make a bold push for the English throne. On July 25, 1745, Charles-Edward Stewart[3]—the "Bonnie Prince Charlie" of Jacobite song—landed from a French brig, near Moidart[4] on the coast of Inverness-shire. He came with only seven officers—"the Seven Men of Moidart," among whom Lord Tullibardine was prominent—to conquer the British Islands; but at five-and-twenty hope is strong in the human breast. Many Highland chieftains, of whom the most distinguished was Cameron of Lochiel,[5] hastened to his side;
Aug. 19, 1745 and his standard was raised at Glenfinnan.[6] At the head
A.D. of 700 clansmen, whose hearts he had won by donning the kilt and tartans, he commenced a southward march.

4. Sir John Cope, the Royalist leader, had incautiously moved to Inverness, and the road was open. At Perth, Charles was proclaimed Regent for his father, "James VIII." Thence he passed through Linlithgow to Edinburgh, winning all hearts by his bright smiles and charming courtesy. His little army had swelled to more than 1,000 men. The capital was unguarded, except by the dragoons of Colonel Gardiner. The magistrates, indeed, were loyal, and the Castle held out
Sept. 17. for the King; but the citizens gladly opened their gates to the young Stewart, who took up his abode in the Palace of Holyrood.

---

[1] *Dettingen.*—In Bavaria; 18 miles east of Frankfort-on-the-Main.

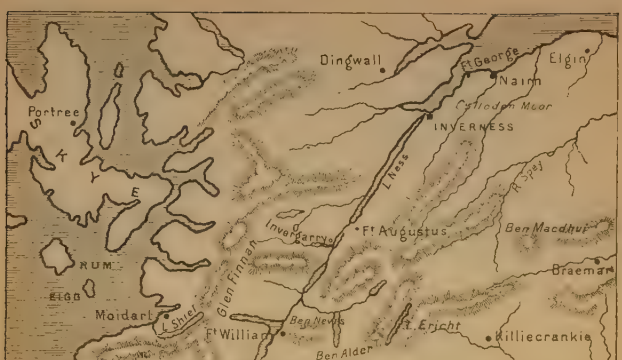
[2] *Fontenoy*—Twenty-four miles north-west of Mons.

[3] *Charles-Edward.*—Son of James Stewart, the old Pretender, and therefore grandson of James II. He is also known as the "young Pretender," and the "Chevalier Douglas"

[4] *Moidart.*—A district and loch in the extreme south-west of the county.

[5] *Lochiel.*—In north of Argyleshire.

[6] *Glenfinnan.*—At the head of Loch Shiel, in the east of Moidart.



5. The same day Cope, having sailed southward, was landing his troops at Dunbar with the intention of marching on Edinburgh. Charles resolved to give battle at once. Moving, therefore, with a force of 2,500 men, he had reached the brow of Carberry Hill when he saw the Royalist army in the narrow plain next the sea. The Highlanders longed to rush on the enemy from the moment that the armies came in sight of each other, and could hardly be induced to wait for another dawn.

6. The great difficulty was the passage of a deep morass which spread between the hosts. A gentleman in the Pretender's army, however, knew of a pathway which avoided the difficult portions of the swamp. In the middle of the night the Highlanders followed this guide, and reached firm ground. At dawn the armies faced each other on the same level field; and in about six minutes more the Highlanders had won the Battle of **Prestonpans**,[1] or Gladsmuir, as the Jacobites preferred to call it. One rush did all. Having first discharged their pistols, they rushed on with the claymore, caught the bayonet points in their targets, and threw their enemies into confusion. Driven back to the wall of Colonel Gardiner's park, the Royalist army broke in two. A few dra-

Sept. 21, 1745 A.D.

[1] *Prestonpans.* — Eight and a half miles east of Edinburgh.

goons galloped off to Edinburgh, but the main body of the army fled, with Sir John at their head, to the shelter of Berwick walls. The royal artillery, stores, and money-chest containing £2,500, fell into the hands of the victors. Among the slain was Colonel Gardiner, distinguished for the piety of his later days, though a godless man in early life.

7. If Charles had then pressed on to London, the throne of the House of Brunswick might have fallen. But his ranks were thin, and six weeks passed before he could muster 5,000 men. During these six weeks, Royalist troops poured in from Flanders, and the Duke of Cumberland marshalled an army to defend the throne. The young Pretender spared no pains to please the Scottish people. Night after night the ball-rooms of Holyrood were filled with brilliant crowds, admiring the handsome youth whose graceful words and kind looks won every heart.

8. At six on the evening of the last day of October, Charles left Holyrood for the purpose of **invading England.** He had then mustered nearly 6,000 men, of whom 500 were cavalry. The first march was to Kelso, from which he struck westward through Liddesdale to Carlisle. The siege of this ancient town occupied some days. After its capture, the southward march was resumed in two bodies—one under the Prince himself, the other under Lord George Murray. No sign of an English rising greeted the invaders as they passed

Oct. 31, 1745 A.D.

through Penrith, Kendal, and Lancaster, on to Preston, where the first few recruits were obtained. At Manchester so many joined the Pretender's flag that a Manchester regiment was organized. Then, however, the Royalists began to stir. Marshal Wade was marching down through Yorkshire; Cumberland, lying at Lichfield with 8,000 men, blocked the southward path; while George himself covered London with another force.

9. **Derby** was reached on the 4th of December, but further Murray and the other officers refused to go. There had been no English rising, no French descent. Their little force of 5,000 men, daily dwindling, was almost hemmed in by three armies numbering 30,000. The only way open to them was the way back again to Scotland. Charles yielded, sorely against his will, and the homeward march was at once begun.

10. With dejected hearts and a hopeless leader, the army reached the heart of Scotland. A slight success at **Falkirk,** where he defeated General Hawley, roused the drooping heart of Charles for a time; but he was still driven northward, and had to shelter himself among the Grampians. Cumberland—known by the unenviable name of "The Butcher"—had already arrived in Scotland to conduct the war. A body of Hessians,[1] landing at Leith, enabled him to gather a considerable force for the Highland expedition. Perth became his head-quarters. Meanwhile Charles approached Inverness from the south-east.

Jan. 17, 1746 A.D.

11. Marching from Aberdeen with 8,000 foot and 900 horse, the Duke of Cumberland skirted the coast, until on the 14th of April he reached Nairn. At Culloden House, where the Lord-President Duncan Forbes[2] used to reside, Charles fixed his head-quarters, and there he heard that Cumberland's army at Nairn had given themselves up to revelry in honour of their commander's birthday. Murray and the Prince agreed in resolving on a night march and a surprise. When the march began, the darkness of the night misled and impeded the starving Highlanders. Two o'clock came when they were still four miles from the foe, so that the intended surprise could not

[1] *Hessians.*—Natives of the Hessen States (Hesse Darmstadt, Hesse Cassel, and Hesse Homburg).

[2] *Forbes.*—Lord-President of the Court of Session at the time. He was very helpful in suppressing the rebellion.

be managed. Falling back, the rebels drew up in line of battle on **Culloden Moor.**[1]

12. The Athole Brigade, the Camerons, and the Stewarts formed the main portion of the right wing; the Macdonalds, angry at the loss of the post of honour which they considered

the ancestral privilege of their clan, mustered gloomily on the left. At eleven, the foe began to appear in dark masses on the horizon. Cumberland drew up his men in three lines, with cavalry on each wing, and artillery peering out through gaps in the front line. In the opening cannonade the royal army had greatly the advantage. Impatient under the fire, **Murray** got leave from the Prince to make an onset with the right and centre. Round-shot and grape could not stay the whirlwind of their attack. Right through the regiments of the front line the Highlanders went; but beyond the broken array they rushed on a living wall, which burst into a sheet of flame at their approach, and hurled them scorched and reeling back.

April 16, **1746** A.D.

13. Following up the effect of their volley, the royal troops charged the exhausted rebels and swept them in pitiable rout from the scene of their short success. So much for the right and the centre. On the left stood **the Macdonalds,** watching with sullen brows the carnage of their countrymen. Refusing to fight, although their leader rushed forward in their view till bullets pierced him with many mortal wounds, they fell back

[1] *Culloden Moor,* or Drummossie Moor, 8 miles north-east of Inverness.

to the fragments of the second line. The battle was over. A faithful adherent, named O'Sullivan, seizing the bridle of the Prince's horse, forced him to leave the hopeless scene. One portion of the defeated army surrendered at Inverness; the other melted away into the glens and corries, from which its motley materials had come.

14. At dawn on the 17th Charles was sleeping in his clothes on the floor of Invergarry[1] Castle, which he had reached in a state of miserable exhaustion. Eight days later he put to sea in a small boat, which was buffeted hither and thither by storms, until he succeeded in reaching South Uist.[2] It proved a place of danger. From the keen search of two thousand men he was saved by the devotion of **Flora Macdonald,** who took him over to Skye in the disguise of her servant.

15. Going thence to the mainland, he endured terrible hardships for some months. Once he saved himself only by creeping down in the dark among the boulders of a rocky river-bed, whose banks were lined with sentinels. On another occasion he lived three weeks in a cave at the mercy of lawless men, who, instead of giving information and securing the offered reward of £30,000, used to bring him gossip, a newspaper, or a cake of gingerbread, when they came back from a visit to Fort-Augustus![3]

16. While living with Cluny and Lochiel in a tree-hidden cave called the Cage, in Benalder[4] Forest, he heard that two French ships had arrived at the coast,[5] and were waiting there to take him off. Travelling only in the dark, he reached the shore in safety, and on the 20th of September—more than five months after the Battle of Culloden, and not quite fourteen months since he had sprung ashore at the same place with the Men of Moidart—he gladly reëmbarked for France. Running in a fog through the English cruisers, he landed on the 29th near Morlaix.[6]

[1] *Invergarry.* — Near Loch Oich; 7 miles south-west of Fort-Augustus.

[2] *South Uist.* — One of the Outer Hebrides; 20 miles south-west of Skye.

[3] *Fort-Augustus.* — Thirty miles south-west of Inverness. (See *Map*, p. 379.)

[4] *Benalder.* — A mountain and forest in south of Inverness-shire, between Loch Laggan and Loch Ericht.

[5] At Loch-na-Nuagh, in west of Inverness-shire; 5 miles north of Loch Moidart.

[6] *Morlaix.* — A small and antique seaport town in Brittany, 34 miles north-east of Brest.

17. About eighty suffered death for this rebellion, among whom were the Scottish Lords Kilmarnock, Balmerino, and Lovat. The clansmen were forbidden to wear the Highland dress;[1] the chieftains were deprived of nearly all their ancient power; and the appointment of the sheriffs—long a hereditary office—was vested in the Crown.

18. Charles-Edward spent his later days at Rome, under the title of **Duke of Albany.** Though the Jacobites long continued the custom of passing their glasses over the water-decanter, as they drank to the "King over the water," the 'Forty-five was the last effort of the exiled family to regain the British throne. The gallant young soldier, of whom so much has been said and sung, sank in later life into a broken-down drunkard. He died of apoplexy in 1788; and nineteen years later died his brother Henry, Cardinal of York—the last male of the Royal Stewart line.

19. The war still lingered on the Continent. In 1745 Maria-Theresa had triumphed, her husband, Francis-Stephen, Grand-Duke of Tuscany, being chosen Emperor. In the same year Austria captured Dresden,[2] and forced a peace on Frederick of Prussia, in which he acknowledged Francis as Emperor. Three years later the Treaty of **Aix-la-Chapelle**[3] was signed by the other belligerents. The rival nations agreed to restore their conquests. The Protestant succession in England was guaranteed; and the Pretender and his family were excluded from France.

1748 A.D.

QUESTIONS.—1. What was the origin of the War of the Austrian Succession? What alarmed the British?

2. Who supported the Queen? What victory did King George gain? What is remarkable about that battle? Who was defeated at Fontenoy? By whom?

3. By what episode of the war was England most affected? What power encouraged the invasion? Who was Charles-Edward? Where did he land? When? With whom? Who joined him? Where was his standard raised? What army had he? In what direction did he march?

4. Who was the Royalist leader? What mistake had he made? What took place at Perth? What was one cause of Charles's success? Where did he reside at Edinburgh?

5. Where was Cope the same day on which the Prince reached Edinburgh?

[1] *Highland dress.*—The privilege of wearing this garb was afterwards restored, and George IV. wore kilts of the Stewart tartan when he visited Scotland in 1822.

[2] *Dresden.*—Capital of Saxony.

[3] *Aix-la-Chapelle* — In Rhenish Prussia, on the frontier of Belgium; 40 miles south-west of Cologne. German name, Aachen.

On what did Charles resolve? What were the Highlanders eager to do?

6. What was the great difficulty? How was it overcome? When did the battle begin? How was it won? What fell into the hands of the victors? Who was among the slain?

7. What prevented Charles from pressing on to London? What time did he waste at Edinburgh?

8. When did his march to England begin? What English town did he first take? Where were the first few recruits obtained? What was the success at Manchester? What English armies were in the field?

9. When was Derby reached? Why did the officers refuse to go further? What did Charles do?

10. When had Charles a slight success? Where had he to shelter himself? Who had gone to Scotland to conduct the war? What foreign troops joined him at Leith? Where meanwhile was Charles?

11. With what army did Cumberland leave Aberdeen? To what town did he march? Where had Charles fixed his head-quarters? On what plan did Murray and the Prince agree? What frustrated it? Where was the Highland army drawn up?

12. Who occupied the right wing? Whom did that disappoint? How did Cumberland arrange his army? What was the result of the Highland attack? What checked it?

13. What became of the right and the centre? What became of the left? What became of the Prince? What became of his army?

14. Where did the Prince spend the night? To what island did he escape? How many men searched for him? Who rescued him? Where did she take him?

15. Where did he go from Skye? How did he save himself on one occasion? With whom did he spend three weeks on another occasion? How did they show their fidelity to him?

16. Where did he live with Cluny and Lochiel? What news reached him there? When did he reach the shore? When did he land in France?

17. How many suffered death for this rebellion? What two lords were among these? How were the clansmen punished? And the chieftains?

18. Where did Charles-Edward spend his later days? Into what did he degenerate? When did he die? Who was the last male of the Royal Stewart line?

19. When did Maria-Theresa triumph? When was her husband recognized by Prussia? By what treaty was general peace secured? What were its chief terms?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. 1740.—**The War of the Austrian Succession** began on the death of Charles VI. In terms of the Pragmatic Sanction (1724), Maria-Theresa succeeded to Hungary, Bohemia, and Austria. But in 1742 the Elector of Bavaria claimed Bohemia and the Empire, and Frederick the Great of Prussia (who had succeeded his father in 1740) seized Silesia.[1] The Elector of Bavaria was declared Emperor as Charles VII., and, with the aid of the French, threatened Vienna. Maria-Theresa fled to Presburg,[2] and the Hungarians rallied around her. England and Sardinia came to her assistance. In 1745 Charles VII. died, and Francis, Maria-Theresa's husband, became Emperor, as

[1] *Silesia.* — Now the south-eastern province of Prussia. Austria now retains only one-ninth of old Silesia.

[2] *Presburg.* — A strongly fortified frontier town of Hungary; 34 miles east of Vienna.

Francis I. The war was concluded by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, which guaranteed the Protestant succession in England, and drove the Pretender from France. Prussia secured Silesia. The Spanish Bourbons were confirmed in the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, and Sardinia gained a further share of the Duchy of Milan.

2. 1747.—The office of **Stadtholder** in Holland, which had been in abeyance since the death of William III. of England, was revived in the person of William IV., and was made hereditary.

3. 1748.—The **Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle** terminated the War of the Austrian Succession. (See 1740.)

QUESTIONS.—1. When did the War of the Austrian Succession begin? What was its origin? Who aided Maria-Theresa? What peace terminated the war? What provisions of it affected England?—2. What office was revived in Holland in 1747? Since when had it been in abeyance? Who was the new Stadtholder? What change was made in the office?—3. Give the date of the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. What war did it terminate?

CHAPTER VII.

THE GREAT COMMONER.

1. Pitt in Opposition.
2. The Pelham Ministry.
3. Pitt as a Statesman.
4. Pitt in Office.
5. Correction of the Calendar.
6. The Seven Years' War.
7. The Devonshire-Pitt Ministry.
8. The Newcastle-Pitt Ministry.
9. The English and the French in India.
10. The Black Hole of Calcutta.
11. Clive in Bengal.
12. The Battle of Plassey.
13. Foundation of the Indian Empire.
14. Minden and Quiberon Bay.
15. The English and the French in America.
16. Success of Montcalm.
17. Position and Defences of Quebec.
18. Wolfe's Three Divisions.
19. Landing at Wolfe's Cove.
20. Perilous Position of the English.
21. The Battle.
22. Death of Wolfe and of Montcalm.
23. Canada Transferred to England.
24. Influence of Bute.
25. Decline of Pitt's Power.
26. The Family Compact—Resignation of Pitt.
27. Popular Sympathy with Pitt.

1. EVER since the retirement of Walpole, the man who had been most steadily coming to the front in English politics was William Pitt, "**the Great Commoner.**" His grandfather was that Governor of Madras who had brought from India the celebrated Pitt diamond, which so long sparkled on the crown of France. William left the university without having taken a degree, and for a short time served as a cornet in the Life Guards Blue. But, entering the House of Commons in 1735 as member for Old Sarum,[1] he soon became so troublesome

[1] *Old Sarum.*—A decayed town in Wilts; 2 miles north of Salisbury.

to the Ministry that Walpole had him dismissed from the army.

2. Thenceforward he devoted himself to politics. He gained the favour of the Prince of Wales, and consequently lost that of the King, whom he further incensed by his anti-Hanoverian speeches. The consequence was, that when the Pelhams, who came into power in 1743, proposed to give him a place in the Ministry, the King obstinately refused to allow it; and it was only when they resigned that George gave way, and agreed to admit him to the minor post of Vice-Treasurer for Ireland. In 1746 he became **Paymaster of the Forces.** Two years previously the old Duchess of Marlborough, the bitter enemy of Walpole, had rewarded Pitt with a legacy of £10,000.

3. As a **statesman,** he was distinguished for his hatred of bribery, and his honest disbursement of the public money. He was a complete master of sarcasm; and often in a few scorching words, delivered with thundering voice and rapid gesture and flashing eye, he withered up the arguments of some unhappy member who had ventured to confront him.

4. Pitt in office curbed his anti-Hanoverian prejudices, or was discreetly silent about them; and when the Prince of Wales died in 1751, his opposition to the King's policy almost died out. By the **death of Prince Frederick**—from the effects of an accidental blow with a tennis-ball—Prince George of Wales, the King's grandson, a boy in his thirteenth year, became heir-apparent to the throne.

5. The adoption of the **Gregorian Calendar**[1] in 1752, under the name of the New Style, was made to some extent a political question, and turned to party purposes. It was found necessary to correct the calendar by dropping

1752 A.D.

[1] The correction was necessary, because the year of the calendar had been reckoned as 365 days 6 hours, whereas the solar year is only 365 days 5 hours 48 minutes 50 seconds. Each year had therefore been reckoned 11 minutes too long. The error, since the Christian era, amounted to 11 days. To make up for this excess, 11 days were dropped out of the year 1752,—September 3rd was called September 14th. To prevent further irregularity, it was resolved that, as the error amounts to 3 days in 4 centuries, three out of every four century years should not be leap years,—thus, 1800, 1900 are not leap years; 2000 is: 2100, 2200, 2300 are not leap years; 2400 is. Pope Gregory first made the change in Italy in 1582. Russia is the only country in Europe which still adheres to the old style. At the same time the first day of January was reckoned the beginning of the year, instead of March 25th.

eleven days out of the year. There were many people in the country who could not see the necessity of any change. But silliest among all the silly cries ever got up against a Ministry was that of the mobs, heard soon afterwards—"Give us back our eleven days!"

6. The death of Mr. Pelham (March 1754) dissolved the Ministry. The **Duke of Newcastle,** Pelham's brother, succeeded him as Premier. The **Seven Years' War** opened under the Newcastle Administration. It was caused by the
1756 feeling of uneasiness in Europe excited by the ambition
A.D. of Frederick the Great, who still held Silesia. Maria-Theresa obtained the aid of France, Russia, and Poland; while England formed an alliance with Prussia. Out of the great Seven Years' War grew a **Colonial War** between England and France. The boundary lines of their colonies were the subject of dispute. India and North America were the theatres of the strife.

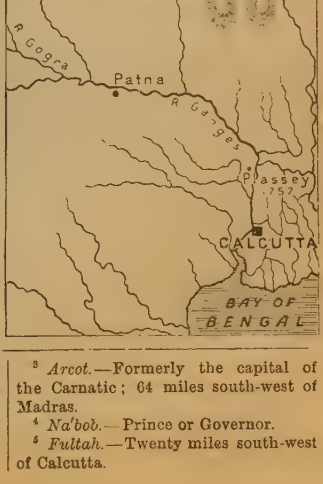
7. In June 1756, **Minorca** surrendered to a French fleet, after a blockade of two months. Admiral Byng had been sent out to relieve it; but thinking his force too weak, he
1756 had retreated to Gibraltar, and had left Minorca to its
A.D. fate. These events excited popular fury against the Ministry. It was further weakened by the withdrawal of Henry Fox (afterwards Lord Holland); and then Newcastle resigned (November). A Ministry was then formed by the **Duke of Devonshire,** with Pitt as Secretary of State, Leader of the Commons, and virtual Premier. During this Ministry, Byng was tried and shot. Pitt spoke out manfully for the Admiral, but could not save him.

8. After Pitt had held the seals for only five months, he was dismissed at the instigation of the Duke of Cumberland (April). So great a cry of indignation arose in the country that
1757 the King was compelled to recall Pitt (June). New-
A.D. castle was nominal Premier, but Pitt was really the head of the Government. As **Foreign Secretary,** he undertook the direction of the war. Then followed that remarkable series of successes which made England supreme in both hemispheres.

9. On the peninsula of **Hindustan** there were trading colonies

of English, French, Dutch, and Portuguese. Of these the British settlements were the chief. Dupleix, the Governor of Pondicherry,[1] the central station of the French, formed the gigantic scheme of conquering all India; and resolutely set himself, with the aid of native princes, to uproot the English settlements. Holding Madras, which had been lately captured by the French, he soon overran the whole Carnatic.[2] But the tide of conquest was turned by **Robert Clive,** who, having entered the East India Company's service as a clerk, joined the army in 1746, and soon distinguished himself by the capture of Arcot.[3] By the seizure of Fort St. David, near Madras, he obtained complete command of the Carnatic.

10. The conquest of Bengal was his most remarkable achievement. Sujah-ad-Dowlah, the boyish Nabob[4] of Bengal, attacked the English settlements by the Ganges in 1756. Fort William, abandoned by its governor and the commander of the troops in garrison, speedily became his prey (June 19th, 1756). The tragedy which has made the **Black Hole** of Calcutta tragic in the annals of the East then occurred. One hundred and forty-six English prisoners were packed into a chamber twenty feet square, with only two little gratings to admit the air. Next morning twenty-three ghastly figures staggered or were lifted, barely living, from the fetid den.



11. Landing at Fultah[5] in December, Clive captured the fortress of Budge-budge, ten miles below Calcutta, and then forced his way through an intervening army to that town.

[1] *Pondicherry.*—On the Coromandel coast (south-east of Hindustan); 86 miles south-west of Madras.

[2] *The Carnatic.*—A division of Southern India extending along the east coast; about 90 miles broad.

[3] *Arcot.*—Formerly the capital of the Carnatic; 64 miles south-west of Madras.

[4] *Na'bob.*—Prince or Governor.

[5] *Fultah.*—Twenty miles south-west of Calcutta.

The fort of Hooghly also fell. Early in 1757, Sujah-ad-Dowlah made a determined attack on Calcutta with 40,000 men. Clive had only 2,400 men, most of them Sepoys.[1] Yet he kept the Nabob at bay, and forced him to come to terms. Clive then turned upon the French settlement of Chandernagore,[2] which he took in May.

12. Meer Jaffier, the Vizier, was the most prominent in the band of traitors around the Nabob; and on his aid or opposition hinged the success of an expedition led by Clive, which left Chandernagore on the 13th of June 1757. When the little army, amounting in all to only 3,100 men, and containing not 800 British troops, approached the village of **Plassey**,[3] Clive saw huge masses of horse and foot, to the number of fully 60,000 men, encamped among the trees! Undismayed by the fire of fifty cannons, which were drawn by white oxen and pushed from behind by butting elephants, the English, protected by a wood and a steep bank, replied briskly with their field-pieces.

June 23, **1757** A.D.

13. The action, beginning at six in the morning, was confined to a double cannonade all day. Clive, whose sleep the night before had been disturbed by the drums and cymbals in the native camp, snatched an hour's rest even with the roar of cannon around him. Many officers of the Sujah's force fell under the fire. Towards evening the forces of Meer Jaffier began to move toward the English lines, evidently with no hostile intention. Clive gladly saw his opportunity, hurled his whole force upon the camp, and swept the vast mob in rout before him. The Nabob headed the flight on a swift camel. And, when Clive came to count his loss, he found that only twenty white men and about fifty Sepoys had perished in the fight which secured for England the Empire of India!

14. In Europe the year 1759 was distinguished by a victory over the French at **Minden**,[4] by English and Hanoverian troops; and by the total destruction of the Brest fleet by

---

[1] *Sepoys.* — Hindu soldiers employed in the British army.

[2] *Chandernagore.* — Sixteen miles north-west of Calcutta. It is still a French settlement.

[3] *Plassey.* — Ninety miles north of Calcutta.

[4] *Minden.* — On the Weser in Westphalia (Germany); 35 miles west of Hanover.

Admiral Hawke, who gained a splendid victory amid the darkness of a stormy night in **Quiberon**[1] Bay, off the rocky shore of Bretagne.

15. In **North America** the French held Canada, while the English settlers possessed the coast of that territory now called the United States. The natural boundary between the settlements was formed by the St. Lawrence and its Lakes. But the Marquis Duquesne,[2] who became Governor in 1752, inaugurated a vigorous system of encroachment on the part of the French. Resolved to keep in French hands the traffic between Canada and the lower Mississippi, he lined the Ohio and the Alleghanys with fortresses, seizing even the unfinished works at the junction of the Ohio and the Monongahēla, and erecting there a stockade[3] called Fort Duquesne (now Pittsburg). In 1755, an English expedition under General Braddock had advanced to attack Fort Duquesne, but had been routed and scattered by an ambuscade of French and Indians near the Monongahēla. The preservation of the defeated army was due to the coolness and skill of a young Virginian colonel, named George Washington.

16. In the following year, the outbreak of the Seven Years' War, already referred to, imbittered the strife in the colonies. When the Marquis Montcalm took the command of the French, the English were driven southward from the shores of Lakes Ontario and George, and affairs bore for the English a gloomy aspect. But Pitt had not long been at the Foreign Office when the clouds began to rise. He himself planned the campaign of 1759. While General Amherst drove the French before him from the forts of Ticonderōga and Crown Point, and General Johnson was investing Fort Niagara, a fleet under Admiral Saunders, bearing an army of 8,000 men under General James Wolfe, was on its way from England for **Quebec**, towards which the other two expeditions were to converge. Wolfe was a young man, but Pitt had himself selected him for this task on account of the proofs of power which he had given.

---

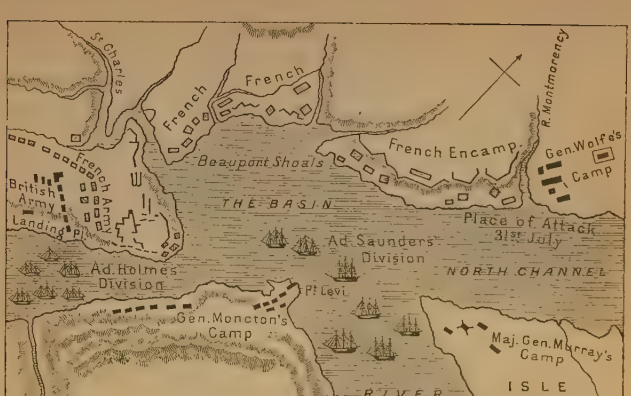
[1] *Quiberon.*—A peninsula, town, and bay, on the south-west coast of Brittany; due north of Belle-isle.

[2] *Duquesne.*—Pronounce Du-Kain'.

[3] *Stockade.*—An enclosure made with posts and stakes.

17. Quebec stands on a peninsula formed by the St. Charles and the St. Lawrence river. The lower town is on the beach; the upper town is on the cliffs, which there rise precipitously to a height of two hundred feet. Montcalm occupied Quebec and its approaches with 12,000 men. His line extended from the River St. Charles—the mouth of which was guarded by sunken ships—to the Falls of Montmorency. The rugged fortress rose on the right. In front there ran an irregular crest of land fortified at all points.

18. Arrived in the St. Lawrence, Wolfe disposed his army in **three divisions.** Brigadier Moncton, with four battalions occupied Point Levi; a brigade under General Murray occupied a camp on the Isle of Orleans; Wolfe himself took post on the left bank of the Montmorency, on a height overlooking the enemy's intrenchments. During July the guns of Point Levi bombarded the town. The lower town was soon laid in ruins, but no impression could be made on the fortress. On the last day of July, Wolfe essayed to attack Montcalm in his intrenchments. Those who were first landed began the attack without waiting for the support of the rest of the force. Overpowered by numbers, they were driven back with heavy loss. The disaster threw Wolfe into a violent fever.



SIEGE OF QUEBEC.

19. At length stratagem was tried. On Wolfe's recovery he concentrated the whole of his army, now reduced to 5,000 men, at Point Levi. On the 10th of September, the whole army marched by the right bank of the St. Lawrence eight miles above Quebec, to where a portion of the fleet was stationed. On the 12th, under cover of night, boats with muffled oars dropped quietly down the stream, bearing the soldiers to a creek above Quebec ever since known as **Wolfe's Cove.** Wolfe himself was in the foremost boat, and as he sat amid his officers he relieved his excitement by reciting to them *Gray's Elegy.* The earnestness with which he pronounced the line,—

"The paths of glory lead but to the grave,"

impressed them deeply; and when he had finished, he said, "Now, gentlemen, I would rather have been the author of that poem than take Quebec to-morrow." A narrow path hidden by trees and shrubs ran tortuously from the beach up the face of the precipitous rock. Swinging themselves up by the branches, holding on by tufts of grass, the agile Highlanders clambered to the top and put to silence a French sentinel. Wolfe and

his whole army followed almost literally in single file. They were able to haul only one light field-piece up the steep ascent. When day broke, on the morning of the 13th, 4,800 British soldiers were forming in line of battle on the **Plains of Abraham** overlooking Quebec.

20. The French were completely surprised. Hastily they were roused from their slumbers, and hurried over the bridge of boats across the River Charles. In his precipitation Montcalm threw away the advantage that a superior artillery would have given him. His men, numbering 7,500, were marshalled for battle on a slope on the north-west of the fortress. Wolfe's position was perilous enough. While a superior force faced him, another French army was advancing from Cap Rouge to attack him in the rear.

21. The French advanced with great show and bravery. Strong parties of their skirmishers drove in upon the English main line the light infantry which were posted in front. Wolfe, who was on foot with his Grenadiers, near the centre of the battle, strode along the ranks and counselled his soldiers not to fire until they saw the eyes of the foe. The French skirmishers retired, and with loud shouts the army advanced in column, Montcalm in the centre with the regiments of Bearn and Guienne. Before their sharp fire the English soldiers fell fast. Wolfe was wounded in the wrist. When within forty yards the red lines poured forth one simultaneous volley of musketry. It was decisive,—the militia fled — the French columns, shattered and reeling, wavered. Wolfe gave the word to advance. As he led the way a shot struck him in the body; wounded again, in the breast, he staggered and fell into the arms of a Grenadier officer, and was borne to the rear.

Sept. 13, 1759 A.D.

22. Montcalm and his officers strove in vain to re-form their columns to withstand the charge of the English. Before their advancing fire, and the rush of the Highlanders with their keen claymores, the French soldiers broke into irretrievable flight, and sought safety under the cannon of the ramparts. **Montcalm fell mortally wounded,** and was borne into Quebec. At this moment the Grenadier officer who knelt beside Wolfe and supported him, called out, "See, they run!"—"Who run?"

asked Wolfe.—"The enemy, sir; they give way everywhere."—"Now, God be praised; I die happy." Montcalm died the next morning, consoled, as a soldier, by the fact that the French flag still waved over Quebec. In the short and sharp battle of "the Plains" the English lost 55 killed and 607 wounded; the French 1,500 in all.

DEATH OF WOLFE.

23. Quebec capitulated on the 18th of September. The English in their turn were besieged in the town for several months; but on the approach of an English fleet in May following, the siege was raised. Three divisions of the British army then began slowly to converge on **Montreal**, the only remaining stronghold of the French in Canada,—one from Quebec, another from Lake Ontario, and a third from Lake Champlain. They all reached the island of Montreal on the same day—the 8th of September 1760. Vaudreuil, the French Governor, finding himself hemmed in

Sept. 8, 1760 A.D.

by 16,000 troops, at once surrendered, and signed a deed **transferring Canada to England.**[1]

24. *GEORGE III.*[2]—On the 25th of the following month George II. died suddenly of heart disease, in the seventy-seventh year of his age. George III., his successor, then in his twenty-second year, was, unlike the two preceding kings, an Englishman by education and sympathy. He ascended

1760 a glorious throne, for the energy and foresight of Pitt
A.D. had made England the first nation in the world. The great Commoner still remained in power, but it ere long became evident that the young King was entirely under the influence of **the Earl of Bute,** his former tutor, and a favourite of his mother the Dowager Princess of Wales.

25. A Secretary of State resigned in order to give Bute a seat in the Cabinet, and he accepted it with no friendly intention. There were already elements of disunion there, which made his task easy. Pitt the orator, and Grenville the financier, although related by marriage, had come to look on public questions with very different eyes. As it has been well put, in relation to the war, "Pitt could see nothing but the trophies, Grenville could see nothing but the bill." And so Bute's influence grew daily stronger. Henry Legge, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, was the first to resign. Then arose the question of a new war, which led to the resignation of Temple and of Pitt.

26. That remarkable secret treaty, **the Family Compact,**[3] made by the Bourbon monarchs of France, Spain, and Naples, had, in its drift at least, become known to Pitt. Foreseeing an inevitable war, he boldly proposed to strike the first blow against the colonies of Spain, selecting Havannah, Pan-

1761 ama, and Manilla as the fittest centres of attack. The
A.D. King, advised by Bute, refused to follow his advice; and then (October 6) Pitt resigned the seals of office. The young King spoke so kindly in the audience-chamber, that

[1] In 1731 the *Gentleman's Magazine* was started by Edward Cave, a bookseller; in 1753 the British Museum was founded; in 1758 the Bridgewater Canal — the greatest work of its kind yet constructed in England—was begun.

[2] *George III.* — Son of Frederick, Prince of Wales, and grandson of George II. Married Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz. Reigned 60 years.

[3] *Family Compact.* — Louis XV. of France was great-grandson of Louis XIV. Charles III. of Spain was grandson of Philip V., who was grandson of Louis XIV. Ferdinand of Naples was son of Charles III. of Spain.

Pitt's eyes filled with tears. The statesman would receive nothing for himself, but gladly accepted a peerage for his wife with a pension of £3,000 a year for three lives.

27. The people took a public opportunity of showing their feeling in the matter. Scarcely casting a look at George and his young bride, as they went in state to dine at Guildhall on Lord Mayor's Day, they overwhelmed the Great Commoner with acclamations. Bute, who succeeded Pitt as Premier, could find safety only by surrounding his coach with a band of pugilists.

QUESTIONS.—1. Who was the Great Commoner? Who was his grandfather? What profession did William join for a time? When did he enter the House of Commons? To which party did he attach himself? How did he suffer for that?

2. To what did he then devote himself? How did he lose the favour of the King? What was the consequence? What made the King give way? What post did he obtain in 1746? Who left him a legacy?

3. What was Pitt's character as a statesman? Of what was he a master, in speaking?

4. How did Pitt conduct himself in office? What event almost extinguished his opposition to the King? When did the Prince die? From what? Who then became heir-apparent?

5. When was the new style of reckoning the year introduced? Why? How was it used as a political weapon?

6. What dissolved the Ministry? Who became Premier? What war opened under the new Ministry? What caused it? Which power did England join? What war grew out of the Seven Years' War? What was the subject of dispute? Where were the theatres of the strife?

7. What events excited popular fury against the Ministry? What led Newcastle to resign? What Ministry was then formed? What position had Pitt in it? Who suffered death during its continuance?

8. When was Pitt dismissed? At whose instigation? What led to his recall? What Ministry was then formed? What office did Pitt hold? What followed?

9. What scheme did the French governor of Pondicherry form? How far was he successful? Who turned the tide of conquest? What fortress did he capture? How did he obtain command of the Carnatic?

10. What was his greatest achievement? What cruelty did Sujah-ad-Dowlah perpetrate? How many perished?

11. When did Clive land in Bengal? What places did he capture? What was the result of the Nabob's attack on Calcutta in 1757? What place did Clive then take?

12. When did Clive march northward from Chandernagore? On what did the success of the expedition hinge? When did Clive come in sight of the enemy? How many were in his army? How many in theirs?

13. When did the action begin? To what was it confined all day? What decided the day? What did Clive then do? What was the loss in Clive's army? What was the result of the victory?

14. By what victories was the year 1759 distinguished?

15. What were the relative positions of the English and the French in North America? What was the natural boundary between them? Who encroached on this boundary? When did he erect a stockade? In what year did the English attack it? With what result? To whom was the preservation of the defeated army due?

16. Who took the command of the

French in the following year? How did affairs look for the English? What changed the aspect of affairs? What was the plan of the campaign of 1759? Who had selected Wolfe for the task? Why?

17. Describe the position of Quebec. Who occupied the place? With how many troops? Describe their disposition?

18. How did Wolfe dispose his army? How was July occupied? What took place on the last day of that month? How did the disaster affect Wolfe?

19. By what stratagem were the Plains of Abraham gained? How many men had Wolfe there at daybreak?

20. What was the effect on the French? What did Montcalm forget in his precipitation? How many men did he bring into the field? Why was Wolfe's position perilous?

21. What counsel did Wolfe give to his Grenadiers? What effect had this? What happened to Wolfe?

22. What did Montcalm strive in vain to do? What happened to him? What were Wolfe's last words? When did Montcalm die? State the losses.

23. When did Quebec capitulate? How were the English in Quebec relieved? What was the only remaining stronghold of the French in Canada? When was it taken? What deed was then signed?

24. When did George II. die? Who succeeded him? What had made his throne glorious? Under whose influence was the young King?

25. How did Bute obtain a seat in the Cabinet? In what spirit did he accept it? What difference had grown up between Pitt and Grenville? What broke down the Ministry?

26. Why did Pitt advise the declaration of war? Why did Pitt resign? Of what acknowledgments did he accept?

27. How did the people show their regard for him? Who succeeded him as Premier?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. **1755.**—The great earthquake at Lisbon destroyed 60,000 persons, and laid the city in ruins.

2. **1756.**—The **Seven Years' War** began, in which England and Prussia were opposed by France, Austria, Russia, Poland, Sweden, and Saxony. The death of Elizabeth, Empress of Russia, in 1762, broke up the Continental league, as her successor, Peter III., was a great admirer and friend of Frederick the Great of Prussia. The war was closed by the Peace of Paris in 1763, by which the English conquest of Canada was confirmed. Minorca, taken 1757, was restored to England. Pondicherry in India was restored to France; but French influence in India was irretrievably destroyed. This treaty left France heavily burdened with debt and grievous taxes.

QUESTIONS.—1. In what year did the great earthquake at Lisbon occur? How many persons were killed?—2. When did the Seven Years' War begin? Who was England's ally? Who were opposed to them? What broke up the Continental league? What peace closed the war? When? What were its chief provisions? What effect had the war on France?

CHAPTER VIII.

LIFE IN ENGLAND—THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

1. The Streets and the Roads.
2. The Mohocks.
3. Coffee-houses.
4. Furniture.
5. Ladies' Dress.
6. Gentlemen's Dress.
7. Promenades.
8. Evening Parties.
9. The Theatre.
10. Manners in Church.
11. Provincial Places of Resort.
12. Literature.
13. Grub Street.
14. Citizen Life.
15. Leading Authors.
16. Leading Artists.

1. THERE were numerous hackney-coaches in London in the eighteenth century, but the **Sedan-chair** was the most fashionable mode of conveyance in the city. The watermen also rowed passengers from stair to stair in their wherries. At night the streets were badly lighted with oil-lamps; and it was customary for those who walked abroad after dark to hire link-boys to carry torches before them in order to show the way. These boys, however, were often the accomplices of the thieves who abounded in London. The country roads were still infested with highwaymen, who, well horsed and closely masked, would hold a pistol to the coachman's head, stop the coach, and compel the passengers to yield their purses and jewellery.

2. Another plague of the streets by night consisted in the rioting of **Mohocks** and other gangs of dissolute young men, "flown with insolence and wine;" who, in defiance of the feeble city watchmen, paraded the chief thoroughfares for the purpose of assaulting any unfortunate citizen whom they might chance to meet. One of their favourite pastimes was that called "sweating" their victim, which consisted in surrounding him with drawn swords, and pricking him with the points till he sank from exhaustion and loss of blood. In 1712, Government offered a reward of one hundred pounds for the apprehension of any one of these ruffians.

3. The **Coffee-house** was the great resort by day: the Cocoa-Tree being the most celebrated Tory house; the St. James's, that most frequented by Whigs. A club then meant a company of men who met regularly on certain evenings in a tavern for supper and conversation.

4. The use of mahogany for furniture, the more general

adoption of carpets, and the improvement of earthenware,[1] made household life more refined and comfortable; but the low-ceiled rooms and narrow windows of the houses still gave an insufficient supply of light and air.

5. The most remarkable part of the **ladies' dress** was the Hoop, a kind of cage on which the flowered brocade of the skirt was extended to an enormous size. Every lady also carried a Fan, of which she made constant use, furling, opening, fluttering it ceaselessly. Their faces were spotted with black patches, which at one time had a political significance, Tory ladies wearing the spots on the left temple, and Whigs on the right. In reference to this practice, Goldsmith, in *The Citizen of the World*, makes his Chinaman propose to send home "a map of an English face patched according to the prevailing fashion." After a fashionable lady had enjoyed her chocolate in bed about noon, she completed her toilet, and then devoted an hour or so to the Toy-shop, where rare china, new fans, and curiosities were sold.

6. The dress worn by a gentleman was stiff and artificial. A huge periwig, white being most prized, flowed with bushy curls on his shoulders at the beginning of the period. This gave way to powdered hair, tied behind in an enormous queue. His coat was of claret velvet, or sky-blue silk, heavily bordered with gold or silver lace—his vest of flowered silk extended its flaps half way to the knee—his three-cornered hat was carried under his arm, an empty form—knee-breeches, silk stockings, and diamond-buckled shoes completed his costume. A jewelled snuff-box, which he displayed as ceaselessly as the lady flirted her fan—a clouded cane—and a silver-hilted sword, were also necessary to his equipment.[2]

7. The usual dinner-hour was between two and five. After that meal the **favourite promenades**—St. James's Mall, Spring Gardens (afterwards Vauxhall), and the Mulberry Garden (where Buckingham Palace stands now)—began to fill,

[1] *Earthenware.* — Pottery manufacture was established at Worcester by Dr. Wall in 1750. Josiah Wedgwood's patent ware was first made in 1762.

[2] A minute description of fashionables and their life at the beginning of this period may be read in Pope's poem, *The Rape of the Lock*, published in 1713. Vanbrugh's character of Lord Foppington, in his comedy *The Relapse*, ridicules the affected pronunciation considered modish at the same time

and fashionable life was in full flood at about seven. Vizards or masks of black velvet were commonly worn; and it was customary to speak to any one, no ceremony of introduction being necessary. In the later part of the century Ranelagh[1] was a favourite resort.

8. At the **evening parties,** which were called *ridottos* or *drums,* gambling was practised to a shameful extent. It was indeed the great vice of the age. Gentlemen gambled at their clubs, ladies in their boudoirs; and it was no uncommon thing for one to lose or win £10,000 in a single night at cards or dice. At various games character and fortune alike were lost; and there were midnight masquerades for those who were fascinated by the ominous rattle of the dice-box. The stately *minuet* was the fashionable dance; but there were gayer movements also, such as the *cotillon* and the *coranto.* Duels constantly resulted from these evening assemblies: the usual places for deciding these "affairs of honour" were Hyde Park Ring, and the grassy space behind Montague House.

9. The **theatre** began to fill at four. The actors wore the dress of their own time, and not the costume suitable to the parts they acted. A prominent figure in the pit was the Beau, who was ambitious of being considered a dramatic critic, and who in consequence had smeared his upper lip with snuff. The gallery was filled with the footmen of the persons of quality who sat in the boxes. Drury Lane was then the principal theatre in London.

10. The demeanour of people **in church** contrasted strongly with the decorous behaviour now usual. People went there to stare about them, and to greet their friends. When the preacher concluded an eloquent passage, or made an apt political allusion, a *hum* of approval might be heard. And it sometimes happened that a number of noisy fellows debated points in theology started by the preacher, so loudly as to disturb the service. Very different, however, was the demeanour of the large congregations that listened eagerly to the appeals of Wesley and the thrilling eloquence of Whitfield. **Education** was at a very low ebb. The only schools were the grammar-

[1] *Ranelagh.*—A place of amusement and public resort in Chelsea.

schools of the sixteenth century. The rural population was allowed to grow up in utter ignorance.

11. Bath, Epsom,[1] and Tunbridge Wells[2] were the principal **provincial places of resort.** There all the follies of metropolitan life were acted over again, with the difference of rural surroundings. The constant embroilments with France and Spain, coupled with the insecurity of travel, prevented the natives of Britain from visiting the Continent, except on rare occasions.

12. The reign of Anne is noted as a brilliant literary period. Addison, Steele, Defoe, and Swift were the chief prose writers. Pope was the leading poet. But the **authors** of the time belonged chiefly to one of two classes. A fortunate writer attracted the attention of some eminent statesman, who gave him a pension or a sinecure, and employed his pen in the writing of pamphlets favourable to certain public measures. Another made a sufficient livelihood by composing plays, deriving his chief profits from the receipts of the house on the third night of representation. But such men were obliged to degrade their calling by penning dedications of fulsome praise, or by cringing to the valets of Ministers of State, or to the secretaries of managers of theatres.

13. All other writers may be characterized in a group as denizens of **Grub Street,**—a locality where the most hapless and improvident literary men herded together, eking out a scanty livelihood by compiling and drudging for booksellers. There was but a slight demand for books. Even the circulating library had not yet come into existence, the usual method of reading a new book being to stand at the bookseller's counter for an hour or so, mark the place of leaving off, and then to return on succeeding days to complete the perusal of the work.

14. The citizen lived a quiet life, dining at twelve or one, and spending the evening till ten o'clock at one of the tavern-clubs already referred to.

---

[1] *Epsom.*—A town in Surrey, 14 miles south-west of London, where there is a famous race-course. Epsom was also resorted to for its medicinal spa

[2] *Tunbridge Wells.*—A fashionable watering-place, 5 miles south-west of Tunbridge in Kent, which is 32 miles south-east of London.

15. LEADING AUTHORS.

SIR ISAAC NEWTON, (1642–1727)—a native of Lincolnshire—Professor at Cambridge—discovered the universal application of the Law of Gravitation—chief work, his *Principia*, a Latin treatise on Natural Philosophy—wrote also on *Daniel* and *Revelation*.

DANIEL DEFOE, (1661-1731)—originally a hosier in London—journalist and novelist—chief work, *Robinson Crusoe* (1719)—noted for his plain idiomatic English—wrote in all 210 works.

JONATHAN SWIFT, (1667-1745)—Dean of St. Patrick's, Dublin—author of *Tale of a Tub* (1704)—the *Drapier Letters* (1724)—*Gulliver's Travels* (1726)—died a lunatic.

JOSEPH ADDISON, (1672-1719)—a prose writer and poet—famous for his papers in the *Spectator*—chief poems *Cato*, a tragedy, and *A Letter from Italy*—was made Secretary of State.

SIR RICHARD STEELE, (1675-1729)—an Irishman, who in 1709 started the *Tatler*, the first regular English periodical—in 1711 began the more famous *Spectator*—wrote many plays also.

ALEXANDER POPE, (1688-1744)—chief poet of the French Artificial School—chief works, *Essay on Criticism* (1711), the *Rape of the Lock* (1713), translation of *Homer* (1725), the *Dunciad*, a satire (1728), and *Essay on Man* (1731-1735)—lived at Twickenham.

JAMES THOMSON, (1700-1748)—a poet of Roxburghshire—chief works, *The Seasons* (1726–27), in blank verse; and *The Castle of Indolence* (1748), in the Spenserian stanza—lived at Richmond.

SAMUEL RICHARDSON, (1689-1761)—first great novelist—a printer by trade—author of *Pamela* (1740), and *Sir Charles Grandison*.

THOMAS GRAY (1716-1771)—Tutor and Professor of History at Cambridge—a most polished poet—author of *Elegy in a Country Churchyard* (1750), *The Bard*, *Progress of Poesy*, &c.

DAVID HUME, (1711-1776)—historian—once keeper of Advocates' Library, Edinburgh—author of *History of England* (1754–62)—a sceptic in religion and philosophy.

---

16. LEADING ARTISTS.

SIR JAMES THORNHILL, (1676-1732)—born at Weymouth—the painter of the dome of St. Paul's and of some cartoons in Hampton Court—State-painter to Anne and George I.

WILLIAM HOGARTH, (1697-1764)—painter and engraver—satirical painter of life—chief works, *The Rake's Progress*, *Marriage à la Mode*, &c.—lived and died in London.

QUESTIONS.—1. What were the modes of conveyance in use in the eighteenth century? What sort of lamps were there? Who were the "link-boys"? What danger infested the country roads?

2. Who were the "Mohocks"? Describe their conduct.

3. What place did the coffee-house hold in the life of the time?

4. What wood became common for furniture? Describe other additions to comfort and convenience.

5. What was the hoop? Describe the use of the fan. What significance had patches often? Where did a lady often spend her morning hours?

6. Describe the dress worn by gentlemen at this period. In what works may we find pictures of fashionable life and talk during this period?

7. What was the usual dinner-hour? Name the chief promenades.

8. What was the vice of the age? Name some of the games and dances fashionable. Where were duels held?

9. Describe the audience at the theatre.

10. What peculiar habits displayed themselves at church?

11. Where were the chief country resorts? Why was there little Continental travel?

12. Whose reign is noted as a brilliant literary period? Describe the two classes of authors.

13. What was "Grub Street"? How were new books usually read?

14. When did a citizen dine, and where did he spend his evenings?

15. Who were the authors of *The Seasons?* The *Essay on Criticism? Pamela? The Bard?* Name the chief works of Addison, Steele, and Hume?

16. What are the chief works of Thornhill and Hogarth?

CHAPTER IX.

AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE.

1. The War of the Family Compact.
2. Unpopularity of Bute.
3. Wilkes and *The North Briton.*
4. Triumph of Wilkes.
5. The American Stamp Act.
6. New Taxes.
7. Lord North.
8. Boston Harbour.
9. First Congress of Representatives at Philadelphia.
10. Commencement of Hostilities.
11. Bunker Hill Seized and Fortified.
12. The English Plan of Attack.
13. The English Victory.
14. What it Proved.
15. George Washington.
16. Invasion of Canada.
17. The Declaration of Independence.
18. Saratoga.
19. The Fourth Campaign.
20. Death of Chatham.
21. Major André.
22. Yorktown—Independence.
23. The War in Europe.
24. The Siege of Gibraltar.
25. The French Engineer.
26. Destruction of the Engines.
27. The Relief.

1. As Pitt had foretold, Spain declared war, in terms of the Family Compact. In the short war which followed, England had many brilliant successes. She gained Havannah and the Philippine Islands from Spain, and stripped France of the finest of her West India Islands. Soon both these countries sought peace. Bute was so alarmed by the increase of the national debt that he readily yielded to their desire, and the Peace of **Paris** was concluded in February 1763. It confirmed the cession to England of Canada by France, and of Florida by Spain. Havannah and the Philip-

1763 A.D.

pines were restored to the latter. The Seven Years' War was closed by the Peace of Hubertsburg,[1] in November.

2. Pitt denounced the Peace of Paris as unworthy of England. Both the Peace and the Ministry became unpopular in the country. Bute was branded with the name of favourite; he was hissed and pelted in the streets of London. Alarmed by the rising tide of popular dislike, he resigned his office. **The Hon. George Grenville** was his successor.

3. In his speech, in closing the session of Parliament (March 1763), the King declared the Peace to have been both honourable and beneficial. Thereupon **The North Briton**, a weekly paper, edited by John Wilkes the Member for Aylesbury,[2] in its famous **No. 45**, charged the King with uttering a lie from the throne. Wilkes was at once arrested on a general warrant,[3] issued against the "authors, printers, and publishers." By virtue of his privilege as a Member of Parliament, he was liberated, and obtained £1,000 damages from the Under-Secretary of State. Chief-Justice Pratt, moreover, declared general warrants illegal. Notwithstanding this, Wilkes was expelled from the House of Commons, and was subsequently outlawed (1764).

4. Returning from France in 1768, he was elected for Middlesex by a large majority. But the House of Commons refused to admit him; and though his sentence of outlawry was reversed, he was sent to prison for two years. There were great riots in his favour; the mob rallied to the cry, "Wilkes and Liberty;" pictures and busts of him were sold everywhere. The more orderly citizens held "public meetings."[4] The King was petitioned to dissolve the Parliament, on the ground that the House of Commons had ceased to represent the people. Not only the Premier (the Duke of Grafton) but the King was assailed in the famous *Letters of Junius*,[5] with a freedom of

[1] *Hubertsburg.*—A village and castle in Saxony; 24 miles east of Leipsic.

[2] *Aylesbury.*—A town in Buckinghamshire; 38 miles north-west of London.

[3] *General Warrant.*—A warrant which does not specify the name of the accused.

[4] *Public Meetings.*—The first regularly constituted public meeting to discuss public measures is said to have been that held by the electors of Westminster, in Westminster Hall, on 29th August 1769, to adopt a petition for redress of grievances.

[5] *Letters of Junius.*—They began to appear in *The Public Advertiser* on January 21, 1769, and continued till

invective previously unknown. Four times did the men of Middlesex return Wilkes to Parliament, and as often did the House of Commons reject him. But in the end he triumphed. Having been made Lord Mayor of London, he was once more returned for Middlesex, and was allowed to take his seat (1774).

5. Meanwhile events had occurred which led to the great **American War.** Grenville, desirous to meet the cost
1765 of the last war, proposed to tax certain papers and
A.D. parchments used in America; and the **Stamp Act** was therefore passed. The Colonists—most of whom were descendants of those old Puritans who had beheaded Charles I. and had reared the Commonwealth—firmly replied, that since they had no share in the government of the Empire, no representatives in the British Parliament, they would pay no taxes to Britain and buy no stamped paper. At the same time they offered to vote voluntary contributions to the imperial treasury.

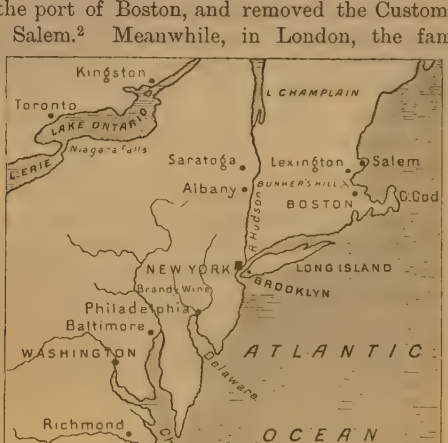
6. Grenville at once resigned; and under the brief ministry of the Marquis of Rockingham the Stamp Act was repealed; but the supreme power of Parliament over the Colonies was still maintained. The Duke of Grafton, and Pitt, now Earl of Chatham, were next called to office; and, in spite of the warnings of the great statesman,[1] **new taxes**—on tea, lead, glass, paper, and painters' colours—were laid on the Colonists, whose discontent grew hourly greater. Defence associations were formed, and colonial congresses were held.

7. In 1768 Chatham gave up the Privy Seal; for his health was failing, and he missed, amid the calm monotony of
1770 the Lords, that stirring excitement of debate in which
A.D. his genius shone most brightly. Two years later the Duke of Grafton gave place to **Lord North**, a Tory Premier, under whom chiefly the American War was conducted.

1772. It is still uncertain who was the writer of them; but the name supported by the best evidence and the highest authorities is that of Sir Philip Francis, then an official in the War Office, and afterwards a member of Council in Bengal. Woodfall, the publisher, was prosecuted. His acquittal showed that the freedom of the press had been completely established. A few years later Woodfall took the lead in vindicating the right of the London printers to publish reports of the debates in Parliament.

[1] Pitt was at the time in retirement, owing to severe mental prostration, and was hardly accessible even to the members of Government.

8. The taxed tea was still sent out to America; but the resistance of the States, among which Massachusetts was foremost, never wavered. Some twenty daring spirits, dressed and painted like Indians, boarded the ships which lay in **Boston**[1] **Harbour**, and emptied the tea-chests into the sea (December). The British Government then shut up the port of Boston, and removed the Custom-house to Salem.[2] Meanwhile, in London, the famous Dr. **1773** A.D.



Franklin, once a printer's boy, now the representative of the Colonists, strove vainly to bring about a reconciliation.

9. All the States, except Georgia, meeting in a Great Congress at **Philadelphia**,[3] sent an address to the King, in which they asked that the oppressive taxes should be removed. The petition was slighted; but wise men shook their heads. Chatham told the Lords that it was **1774** A.D.

[1] *Boston.*—A sea-port, and the capital of Massachusetts (United States).

[2] *Salem.*—Sixteen miles north-east of Boston.

[3] *Philadelphia.*—On Delaware river, in Pennsylvania; formerly capital, and still the second city, of the Union. (See the *Map.*)

folly to force the taxes in the face of a continent in arms. Edmund Burke bade the Commons beware lest they severed those ties of similar privilege and kindred blood, which, light as air though strong as iron, bound the Colonies to the motherland. The ministers were deaf to these eloquent warnings, and blind to the gathering storm. General Gage, with 5,000 English troops, continued to occupy Boston.

10. After ten years of wordy strife, actual war began. It continued with varying success during eight campaigns. The first outbreak was at **Lexington**,[1] between Boston and Concord, where a few American riflemen attacked a detachment of British soldiers that was marching to seize some warlike stores.

April 19, 1775 A.D.

11. In May the American yeomanry, to the number of nearly 20,000, blockaded **Boston**, where Gage's garrison had been augmented to 10,000 men. The American intrenchments formed a line twenty miles long, south-west of Boston. North of Boston, and separated from Charlestown by

May.

an inlet, are two hills, the higher of which is called **Bunker Hill**, and the lower Breed Hill. As these hills completely command the city, the Americans resolved to seize and fortify the former.

[1] *Lexington.*—Eleven miles north-west of Boston.

It is said that Gage had resolved to occupy the heights on the night of the 18th June; but Gage was habitually too late. On the evening of the 16th twelve hundred Americans, under General Prescott, mustered on Cambridge Common, and marched to the top of the hill without being discovered. Intrenchments were hastily thrown up; and in the morning Gage was astonished to see earth-works and swarms of armed men where, the night before, there had only been untrodden grass. June 18, 1775 A.D.

12. Gage determined to carry the works by **assault.** On the afternoon of the 17th, 3,000 picked men under Generals Howe and Pigot left Boston and were landed on the peninsula. The plan of attack was simple enough. The English were to march straight up the hill and drive the undisciplined Americans away. But the task was not so easy as it seemed. The day was "exceeding hot." The English soldiers were heavily laden with provisions and other equipments to enable them to hold the heights when they had gained them. The hill was steep, the grass was long, the enemy was watchful and resolute.

13. While yet a long way off, the English opened a harmless fire of musketry. There was no reply from the American lines, for the men had been ordered to withhold their fire till they could see the white of the Englishmen's eyes, and then to aim low. When within one hundred and fifty yards of the works, the column received a volley so close and deadly as to send its sadly diminished numbers reeling down the hill. Again they advanced almost to the American works, and again they sustained a bloody repulse. Then stripping off their greatcoats, and leaving them with their knapsacks at the hill-foot, they resolved to end the fight with the bayonet. The ammunition of the Americans being exhausted, they could give the enemy only a single volley. The English swarmed over the parapet. There was a brief hand-to-hand struggle. The Americans fled down the hill, and across the Neck to Cambridge, the English ships raking them with grape-shot as they ran.

14. They had done their work. Victory no doubt remained with the English. Their object had been to carry the American intrenchments, and they had carried them. But much greater than that was the gain of the Americans. They had proved to

themselves and to the world that, with the help of some slight field-works, it was possible for undisciplined patriots to meet on equal terms the best troops England could send against them. Henceforth the success of the Revolution was assured. "Thank God," said Washington, when he heard of the battle; "the liberties of the country are safe."

15. Two days previously, the Congress, having reassembled at Philadelphia, had unanimously appointed **George Washington**[1] Commander-in-chief. He immediately joined the army at Boston. It consisted of men quite undisciplined, wretchedly clothed, and almost without ammunition, but strong in the courage which comes of determination and a good cause. Fortunately they were not yet soldiers enough to know the weakness of their position, and Gage was too dilatory to take advantage of it. In October, Gage was succeeded by General Howe.

16. The second remarkable event of the campaign of 1775 was the fruitless invasion of **Canada** by the American leaders, Montgomery and Arnold. Montreal fell before General Montgomery. Colonel Arnold, marching through the wild backwoods of Maine, joined him before Quebec. But they were beaten back from that fortress, and Montgomery was slain. Meanwhile 17,000 Hessian troops had been called from Germany to aid the British arms. The Royalist forces in America now numbered 55,000 men.

17. Early in the second campaign Howe was compelled, by the cannon of the Americans, to evacuate Boston and to sail for Halifax;[2] and then was issued, by the Congress at Philadelphia, that famous and eloquent document called "**The Declaration of Independence.**"

1776 A.D. July 4.

The British in some measure retrieved the disasters of March by the triumphs of August, when General Howe, reinforced by his brother, seized Long Island,[3] drove Washington from New York, and planted the British flag on its batteries.

---

[1] *George Washington.* — Born in Virginia, 1732; a major, Virginia militia, 1751; Commander-in-chief of the American Army, 1775. First President of the United States, 1789; reëlected, 1793. Retired, 1797; died, 1799.

[2] *Halifax.* — Capital of Nova Scotia. It is nearly 500 miles from Boston by sea.

[3] *Long Island.* — Opposite New York, between New York Bay and the Atlantic. It is 115 miles long and 20 broad. Brooklyn, in the south-west, is an important suburb of New York.

18. At the opening of the third campaign the Americans obtained aid in men and money from France. Of the French officers the most distinguished was the young Marquis de la Fayette.[1] A victory at the Brandywine river, a tributary of the Delaware, and the capture of Philadelphia, raised hopes in Britain that the subjugation of the Colonies was not far distant. But a great humiliation changed all these hopes into fears. General Burgoyne, marching from Canada, was so hemmed in by the American troops at **Saratoga,**[2] that he was forced to surrender with all his brass cannon, muskets, and military stores (October 16, 1777). Thenceforward through five campaigns America had decidedly the best of the war. **1777** A.D.

19. During the winter the soldiers of Washington were shoeless and starving in Valley Forge, near Philadelphia; but inspired by the noble patience of their leader, they bore their sufferings bravely. The fourth campaign did not open till June. Howe had been succeeded meanwhile by Sir Henry Clinton, who soon abandoned the city of Philadelphia, in which the British army had passed the winter. **1778** A.D.

20. It was during this year that the venerable Chatham, while thundering, in spite of age and illness, against a proposal to grant the Colonies independence, fell in a fit on the floor of the House of Lords, and was carried to a bed whence he never rose. He died five weeks afterwards. He had all along opposed the war as hopeless and cruel; but he was equally opposed to the dismemberment of the empire.

21. No event of great note marked the fifth campaign (1779), which was conducted chiefly in the Southern States. In the sixth, however, Sir Henry Clinton took **Charleston.**[3] Arnold, commander of a fort on the Hudson River,[4] deserted, and

---

[1] *La Fayette.*—A celebrated French soldier and patriot. When only twenty years of age he sailed for America to aid the Colonists, in a frigate equipped at his own cost. Two years later he returned to France for men and money. He took a leading part in the French Revolutions of 1789 and 1830. He visited the United States in 1820. Born 1757; died 1834.

[2] *Saratoga.*—In New York State; 32 miles north of Albany, and the same distance from Lake Champlain.

[3] *Charleston.*—Capital of South Carolina; 7 miles from the Atlantic.

[4] *Hudson River.*—The river at the mouth of which New York stands. It, as well as Hudson Bay, was named after Henry Hudson, the Arctic navigator. He died in 1611.

became a general in the British service. Major André, who had arranged the affair, being seized by the American
1780 A.D. sentinels, was hanged as a spy by Washington, in spite of all attempts to save him.

22. During the seventh campaign a second great disaster befell the British arms. Lord Cornwallis, the con-
1781 A.D. queror of Gates and La Fayette, was, by the skilful movements of Washington, shut up in **Yorktown,**[1] and compelled to surrender with 7,000 men. This was the decisive blow; and although the war lingered through another campaign, the American Colonies were now virtually severed from the British Empire. The Independence of the
1783 A.D. **Thirteen United States** was after some time formally acknowledged by the Treaty of Versailles; and they became a Republic, governed by an elected President.[2]

23. During the later years of the American War, Britain was engaged in a strife nearer home, which taxed her strength to the utmost. France, Spain, and Holland were in arms against her. Russia, Sweden, and Denmark had formed an *Armed Neutrality;* which means, in plain English, that they were ready to pounce on her when they saw an opportunity fit and safe. But, even against such fearful odds, she triumphed.

24. The chief event of the war was the unsuccessful Siege of **Gibraltar**[3] for three years (1779–1782) by the French and the Spaniards. The garrison—which was commanded by General Elliot, afterwards Lord Heathfield—was temporarily relieved by Admiral Rodney in January 1780, and again by Admiral Darby in April 1781. Towards the end of the latter year a brilliant sortie by the garrison destroyed the siege-works on

---

[1] *Yorktown.*—In Virginia; 50 miles south-east of Richmond.

[2] The names of the Thirteen Original States, with the dates of their settlement or conquest, are as follows:—

North Carolina	1585	New York	1664
Virginia	1607	New Jersey	1664
Massachusetts	1620	Delaware	1664
New Hampshire	1623	South Carolina	1680
Maryland	1634	Pennsylvania	1681
Connecticut	1635	Georgia	1732
Rhode Island	1636		

[3] *Siege of Gibraltar.*—See Royal Reader No. VI., pp. 9–15.

the peninsula in less than an hour. The besiegers then resolved on a tremendous effort to bombard the place.

25. Forty thousand men, under the direction of the Duc de Crillon, with four hundred pieces of artillery, gathered round the Rock in 1782. To meet the storm of red-hot balls which Elliot poured from the town, a French engineer devised a plan which excited high hopes of success. At enormous expense **ten vessels** were constructed, thickly planked below and walled with timber, cork, and wet sand. They were provided with slanting roofs of wet hide stretched on cable netting, whose angle could be changed at will. Armed with new brass guns, these vessels floated slowly up to the English batteries, attended by shoals of gunboats, frigates, and other craft.

26. At nine on the eventful morning (September 13), the "constructions" received a warm English welcome of red-hot iron as they moved to the attack. All day the cannons roared. Towards evening ominous smoke-jets, issuing from the sides of the monsters, whose bellowing had ceased, excited alarm. But, when the flames burst out, the hopes of the besiegers withered away. Two of the sand-and-hide engines blew up—the rest were burned either by the English balls or by their own crews. **1782** A.D.

27. This repulse, however, did not relieve Gibraltar; for it was known that food and powder were running low within the walls: the blockade therefore continued, fifty sail of the line, with other vessels, occupying the Bay. The final relief of the garrison was accomplished by Admiral **Lord Howe** on the 14th of October. Having stretched a chain of ships across the mouth of the Bay, Howe spent the four following days in directing the unlading of the store-ships. The raising of the siege of Gibraltar soon followed this third and greatest relief.

QUESTIONS.—1. How was Pitt's prophecy fulfilled? What did England gain in the war? What induced Bute to listen to proposals of peace? What treaty was concluded? What were its terms? What treaty terminated the Seven Years' War? When?

2. What led to Bute's retirement? Who succeeded him?

3. For what was Wilkes arrested? On what ground was he liberated? How was he treated by the House of Commons?

4. What showed his popularity in 1768? To what did the refusal of the House to admit him lead? In what famous *Letters* were the Premier and the King assailed? How often did the House of Commons reject Wilkes? How did the struggle end?

5. What Act, relating to America, was now passed? How did the Americans reply to the proposal to tax them?

6. How did Grenville act? What took place during the ministry of his successor? What was that minister's name? Who were next called to office? What new taxes were then imposed?

7. How did the Earl of Chatham act in 1768? Who became Premier in 1770?

8. What was still sent to America? Which of the States was foremost in resistance? What daring act was committed at Boston? How did the Government retaliate?

9. What were the proceedings of the States in 1774? How was this petition received? What was the advice of Chatham and of Burke?

10. When did actual war break out? Where was the first skirmish?

11. What place did the Americans blockade in May 1775? What hill did they resolve to seize? Who commanded the expedition? When did it set out? What did it accomplish?

12. On what did Gage resolve? What was the plan of attack? What made the task difficult?

13. When did the Americans reply to the English musketry? With what effect? How often were the English repulsed? How did they at last succeed?

14. Whose was the victory? What great gain remained to the Americans? What did Washington say when he heard of the battle?

15. To what post had Washington been appointed? Of what kind of men did the army consist? Who succeeded Gage in October?

16. What was the second remarkable event of this campaign? At the close of the campaign, what was the strength of the British army in America?

17. What success was obtained by the Americans early in the campaign of 1776? What famous document was issued on the 4th of July? What advantages were gained by the British in the following month?

18. What aid did the Americans receive at the opening of the third campaign? Who was the most distinguished of the French officers? What events occurred which raised hopes that the Colonies would be eventually subdued? What event changed entirely the current of affairs?

19. What was the condition of the American Army in Valley Forge? When did the fourth campaign open? Who had superseded General Howe? What city was almost immediately abandoned by him?

20. What lamentable event befell Chatham in the year 1778? What proposal had he steadily opposed?

21. What events of importance occurred in the sixth campaign, 1780? Why was Major André hanged?

22. What was the second great disaster to the British arms? In what year did this occur? When was the independence of the States acknowledged? What form of government was chosen by them?

23. What was the state of affairs in Europe towards the close of the American War? What was "the Armed Neutrality"?

24. What was the chief event of the war in Europe? By whom was the garrison relieved in 1780, and in 1781? How were the siege-works in the isthmus destroyed?

25. How many men gathered round the place in 1782? What was the plan of the French engineer?

26. When did the great attack take place? How was it repulsed?

27. When was the final relief of the garrison effected? By whom?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. **1762.**—Catherine II. of Russia began to reign, her husband, Peter III., having been deposed and murdered. She carried out the aggressive policy of Peter the Great and his successor, Catherine I., and extended

the influence and increased the territory of Russia on every side. She died in 1796, after having taken an active part in the successive partitions of Poland. (See 1772; 1793, 1795, p. 440.)

2. **1766.**—The French acquired the Duchy of Lothringen (Lorraine) on the death of Stanislaus (of Poland), and retaining Elsass (Alsace), thus extended their territory to the Rhine. In return for resigning the Polish crown in 1735, Stanislaus had received Lorraine; which was to pass, at his death, to his son-in-law, Louis XV. of France. At the same time Francis, Duke of Lorraine (who had become Emperor in 1745), received Tuscany in exchange.

3. **1768.**—The island of Corsica was annexed to France. Corsica previously belonged to Genoa; but the natives had rebelled against the Genoese. The latter called in the aid of the French, and gave up their rights to them. The French then conquered the island for themselves.

4. **1772.**—The **first partition of Poland** took place. One-third of Poland was seized, and divided by Russia, Prussia, and Austria. Over the remainder the real authority was exercised by a Russian envoy resident at Warsaw.

5. **1773.**—Holstein was finally united to the Danish crown. Catherine of Russia, who had inherited it, ceded it to Denmark.

6. **1774.**—Louis XVI. succeeded to the French throne. His wife was Marie-Antoinette, daughter of Maria-Theresa of Austria.

7. **1774.**—Russia obtained from Turkey, by treaty, the **Crimea**[1] and the northern shores of the Black Sea, as far west as the Bûg; the protection of the Greek Christians in the Turkish dominions; and a share in the government of Moldavia and Wallachia.[2] This made Russia the most powerful State in the east of Europe, and a rival of the Western Powers.

8. **1786.**—**Frederick the Great** of Prussia died, leaving Prussia in the position of one of the great powers of Europe.

9. **1787.**—A civil war in the Low Countries led to the interference of Prussia and Austria; and the Netherlands fell from its leading position among European States. The Netherlands at that time came very much under the influence of Prussia, as the Belgian provinces were under that of Austria.

10. **1789.**—**George Washington** was elected first President of the United States of America. The city of Washington, named after him, was made the seat of the Government in 1792. The Capitol there was begun in 1793.

QUESTIONS.—1. What was the end of Peter III. of Russia? Who succeeded him? What policy did she adopt? With what success? In what territorial partitions did she take part?—2. What enabled France to extend

[1] *The Crimea.*—A peninsula on the north of the Black Sea.

[2] *Moldavia and Wallachia.*—Turkish provinces north of the Danube.

her territory to the Rhine? How did she obtain Lorraine? On what condition had Stanislaus got it? What had induced Francis to give it up to him?—3. How did France get possession of Corsica?—4. When did the first partition of Poland take place? How much of the territory was seized? Among whom was it divided? Who exercised the real authority over the remainder?—5. How did Denmark obtain Holstein? When?—6. When did Louis XVI. succeed to the French throne? Who was his wife?—7. What made Russia the most powerful State in the east of Europe?—8. When did Frederick the Great of Prussia die? In what position did he leave Prussia?—9. What led to the interference of Prussia and Austria in the Low Countries? Under whose influence at that time did Belgium and Holland respectively come?—10. Who was first President of the United States of America? When was he elected? How long did he hold office? When did he retire from public life? When did he die? When was the city of Washington made the seat of the Government? When was the Capitol there begun?

CHAPTER X.

INDIA.

1. Lord Clive, Governor of Bengal.
2. The Regulating Act—First Governor-General.
3. War in the Carnatic.
4. Captain Cook's Discoveries.
5. The Gordon Riots.
6. The Younger Pitt.
7. Parliamentary Reform.
8. Fox's India Bill.
9. Pitt Premier.
10. The Board of Control.
11. Impeachment of Warren Hastings.
12. Mysore Subdued.

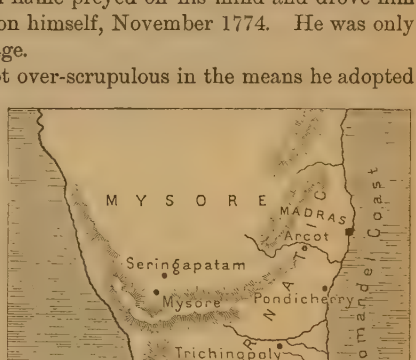
1. When ill-health compelled Clive to leave India for England in 1760, that which he had found as a group of commercial settlements had become virtually an empire. Not long after Clive's departure, Sir Eyre Coote gained several victories which secured the Carnatic for England. By-and-by the absence of Clive's vigorous hand and watchful eye at head-quarters was felt. The East India Company's servants practised shameful extortion, and the service became disorganized. The native princes began to assume an independent tone, and to throw off their allegiance. The Company was threatened with ruin. In these circumstances Clive, now **Lord Clive** of Plassey, was induced to return to India in 1765, as **Governor of Bengal.** He set himself vigorously to reform the service, and he concluded a favourable treaty with the Mogul Emperor. But his health again gave way, and he finally left India in 1767.

2. Clive's departure was followed by a long succession of disasters. Hyder Ali, King of Mysore[1] in Southern India,

[1] *Mysore.*—A district in the south of the Deccan, of which Seringapatam was capital. It is in the angle formed by the east and west Ghauts.

formed an alliance with the Mahratta chiefs. The Company's trade fell off to an alarming extent. A terrible famine ravaged the land. Lord North, who had come into power in 1770, passed in 1773 the **Regulating Act,** by which the Governor of Bengal was made superior to the Governors of Madras and Bombay. Warren Hastings, who had already filled the office of Member of Council both at Calcutta and at Madras, was appointed first **Governor-General of India.** In the same year General Burgoyne—afterwards the ignoble hero of Saratoga[1]—led an attack on Clive's character in the House of Commons. It was prompted by those whom his reforms had made his enemies. The House admitted that he had been guilty of certain irregularities, but added to its Resolution "That Robert, Lord Clive, did, at the same time, render great and meritorious services to his country." Though thus actually acquitted, the stain cast on his good name preyed on his mind and drove him to lay violent hands on himself, November 1774. He was only forty-eight years of age.

3. Hastings was not over-scrupulous in the means he adopted for filling his treasury, both to satisfy the shareholders of the Company and to carry on his wars. From the first, however, his administration was marked by the greatest vigour. When France joined the Americans in 1778, Hastings lost no time ere he had captured Chandernagore and Pondicherry, and had all but ruined her influence in India. In 1780 Hyder Ali overran **the Carnatic**



[1] *Saratoga.*—See p. 411.

and threatened Madras. Hastings made peace with the Mahrattas,[1] and hurled against Hyder the whole of his available forces under Sir Eyre Coote. Coote gained two brilliant victories over him in 1781, and finally crushed him at Arnee[2] in 1782. Hyder died before the end of that year, and in 1783 his son Tippoo Saib made peace with the English.

4. While Hastings had thus been building up the English power in India, the discoveries of Captain **James Cook** had been adding largely to the Empire in another quarter of the globe. This celebrated sailor, who may well be called the founder of the great Australian Colonies, was born in Yorkshire in 1728. Between the years 1767 and 1779 he made three voyages round the world, exploring especially the South Seas and the coast of Australia. He was killed in 1779 at Hawaii[3] by the spear of a treacherous native.

5. Great changes, meanwhile, had taken place at home. In 1780 London was convulsed by the **Gordon Riots**. Two years earlier some heavy penal laws against Roman Catholics had been repealed. In June Lord George Gordon, **1780** escorted by an immense mob, went to the House of A.D. Commons to present a petition against the reversal of these laws. The petition was rejected, and the riots began. For a week the mob held London streets; nor did they yield to the soldiery until more than four hundred had been killed. Lord George was sent to the Tower, and tried; but he was acquitted. It is said that he afterwards embraced Judaism.

6. The general election of 1780 turned on the continuance of the American War. A majority was returned against the Ministry; but the King was so unwilling to abandon his policy of coërcing the Colonies, that he kept Lord North in power till the beginning of 1782. Then the Marquis of Rockingham returned to office. Charles James Fox, a son of Lord Holland, and Edmund Burke, the great orator, were members

---

[1] *Mahrattas.*—They originally belonged to the north-west of the Deccan (India, south of the Vindhya Mountains). They were finally subdued by England in 1818.

[2] *Arnee.*—Eighty miles west-south-west of Madras.

[3] *Hawaii* (or Owhyhee).—The largest and southernmost of the Sandwich Islands, in the Pacific Ocean.

of this Administration. But the death of Rockingham in July broke up the Ministry. Lord Shelburne became Premier, with **William Pitt**, the second son of Lord Chatham, as Chancellor of the Exchequer. Pitt, though he had just completed his twenty-fourth year, was already acknowledged by the leading men of all parties to be one of the finest orators and one of the ablest statesmen of modern times. 1782 A.D.

7. On entering Parliament, Pitt identified himself with the subject of Parliamentary Reform, a subject which began at this time to engage attention. His maiden speech (February 1781) had been made in support of Burke's motion for "economical reform." In May of next year he moved for a Committee of Inquiry into the system of electing members of Parliament. His motion was lost, but only by twenty votes; and resolutions were passed by which revenue officers were disfranchised, and contractors under Government were excluded from the House of Commons.

8. On the Shelburne Ministry devolved the task of completing the Treaty with the United States. Though the country was pledged to peace, the treaty was everywhere unpopular. Fox and the moderate Whigs joined the Tories and drove the Ministry from office. The Coälition Ministry was then formed by the Duke of Portland. It included North and Fox, formerly bitter opponents, as well as Burke and Sheridan. The chief subject that engaged the attention of this Ministry was the government of India. Fox, in his **India Bill**, prepared by himself and Burke, proposed to vest the government of India for five years in a Commission appointed by Parliament and independent of the Crown. The Commons passed the measure; but it was violently opposed by the King, through whose influence the Lords rejected it.

9. The Portland Ministry was then dismissed (December), and **Pitt** became **Premier** and Chancellor of the Exchequer in his twenty-fifth year. His task was one of great difficulty, for he had to contend with a hostile majority, led by the most experienced Parliamentary tacticians of the day; and he had not a single able speaker on his side. For four months he fought with matchless skill and unfailing courage. The King supported him. The mass of the nation was 1784 A.D.

in his favour. Gradually the majority dwindled down. When it had been reduced from one hundred and four to one, he dissolved Parliament (March 24.)

10. In the new Parliament, Pitt had an overwhelming majority, which insured his supremacy during the remainder of his life. One of the first uses he made of it was to settle the government of India. This he did in 1784 by a Bill erecting the **Board of Control**, which consisted of six Privy Councillors appointed by the Crown, the principal Secretaries of State, and the Chancellor of the Exchequer. This Board, which continued till the Company was abolished in 1858, was an Indian Commission sitting in London which had supreme authority over the government of India and the affairs of the Company. In the following year Pitt introduced a Bill for Parliamentary Reform, but it was rejected by a large majority. With his measures of financial reform he was more successful. In 1787 he concluded a Commercial Treaty with France.

11. Warren Hastings finally quitted India in 1785; and he left it in a state of unexampled peace. At first he was received at home with marked favour; but by-and-by murmurs of detraction began to be heard, and eventually he was **impeached** before the House of Lords. The chief charges against him were, —that he had hired out British troops to crush certain free native tribes; that he had extorted large sums of money from native princes—in particular from the Rajah of Benares and the Princesses of Oudh; that, to this end, he had used oppression, and even torture; and that he had supported his authority by other unlawful means. The impeachment was moved in the House of Commons by Burke in a magnificent speech. Fox and Sheridan expended their most brilliant eloquence in assailing him. Pitt could not deny that he had acted tyrannically The impeachment was accordingly voted. The trial commenced in 1788. It lasted seven years, and in the end Hastings was acquitted. But the trial had ruined him, and he received a pension from the East India Company which enabled him to pass the close of his life in comfort.

12. Hastings was succeeded as Governor-General by Lord Cornwallis, under whom the war against Tippoo Saib was so vigorously prosecuted that in 1792 he was forced to submit.

A few years later, however, a change in the government encouraged the Rajah to resume hostilities. In 1799 a powerful army was despatched to Mysore under General Harris. Seringapatam was stormed by Sir David Baird, and Tippoo was slain. Colonel Arthur Wellesley[1] (afterwards the great Duke of Wellington), who had taken a prominent part in the campaign, was then appointed English Governor of Mysore.

QUESTIONS.—1. What was India as Clive found it? What had it become when he left it? How was Clive's absence felt? To what post was he appointed in 1765? To what did he set himself? When did he finally leave India?

2. What led to the passing of the Regulating Act? What was its chief provision? Who was the first Governor-General? Who led the attack on Clive in the House of Commons? What was its issue? What effect had it on Clive?

3. What was the character of Hastings' administration? How did he deal with the war in the Carnatic? Where was Hyder Ali finally crushed?

4. What may Captain Cook be called? When did he make his voyages round the world? Where and how did he die?

5. What was the origin of the Gordon riots? How long did they last? How were they put down?

6. Which party had a majority in the Parliament of 1780? Why did the King not change the Ministry? Who were members of Rockingham's Ministry? Of what Ministry was William Pitt a member? How old was Pitt then?

7. With what subject did he identify himself on entering Parliament? What was the result of his motion in 1782? What resolutions were adopted?

8. What led to the overthrow of the Shelburne Ministry? Who formed the Coälition Ministry? What subject chiefly occupied it? What led to its dismissal?

9. Who then became Premier? What difficulty beset him? When did he dissolve Parliament?

10. Who had the majority in the new Parliament? What was the special feature of Pitt's India Bill? When was it passed? What Bill did he introduce in the following year? What was its fate? What treaty did he conclude in 1787?

11. When did Hastings finally quit India? In what state did he leave it? What charges were brought against him? Who moved the impeachment? Who supported it? What position did Pitt assume? How long did the trial last? How did it end? How did the East India Company treat him?

12. Who succeeded Hastings as Governor-General? When did Tippoo Saib submit to the English? What encouraged him to resume hostilities? Where was he defeated and slain? When? Who was made first English Governor of Mysore?

---

[1] *Wellesley.* — His elder brother, Lord Mornington, afterwards Marquis Wellesley, was then Governor-General of India.

CHAPTER XI.

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

1. The Revolution.
2. Its Effects in England.
3. Affairs of Canada.
4. New Brunswick Founded.
5. The Canada Constitutional Act.
6. The French Republic.
7. English Sympathizers.
8. First Coälition against France.
9. Mutiny at the Nore.
10. St. Vincent and Camperdown.
11. Battle of the Nile.
12. Acre and Alexandria.
13. Irish Rising.
14. Vinegar Hill.
15. The Irish Union.
16. Resignation of Pitt.
17. Leading Authors.
18. Leading Artists.

1. The **French Revolution**, which began in 1789, was the greatest event of the eighteenth century. During its continuance, the history of England is to a great extent merged in the general history of Europe. In France, a long course of tyrannical oppression, and of reckless extravagance on the part of the Court, ending in serious national embarrassment and an intolerable weight of taxation, had resulted in rankling discontent. Minister after minister tried to grapple with the financial difficulties, and failed. The States-General were then called (1789). The Commons members, or Third Estate ("Tiers Etat"), constituted themselves a National Assembly. Then the Paris mob stormed the Bastille, and the Revolution began. The ancient Bourbon monarchy was overturned; the King and the Queen—Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette—were guillotined; the Christian faith was trampled under foot; and a goddess of Reason was set up for worship: all France was drenched in blood.

2. The ferment quickly spread to England; but the great concessions made to the Parliament and the people at the Revolution of 1688 rendered it comparatively harmless there. Yet it imbittered party feeling, all the more that the claims of the people to larger and more direct representation in the House of Commons were beginning to be urged. Many even of the friends of reform were alarmed by the proceedings in France, and became opponents of change. Fox and the Whigs sympathized with the demands of the French people for liberty. Burke, however, denounced the excesses in France, and foretold the overturn of law and order. Pitt's policy during the earlier scenes of the Revolution was that of strict neutrality.

Ultimately its excesses impressed him with the danger of increasing the power of the people, and he changed his views on the reform of Parliament.

3. The effects of the Revolution were seen in the discussions raised by the Canada Bill of Lord Grenville[1] in 1791. Ever since the conquest of Canada, its government had been beset with difficulties arising from the differences in nationality and in religion which separated the inhabitants—the French being Roman Catholic, and the English generally Protestant. The Quebec Act of 1774 had attempted to cure the evils, but it had been found wanting. That Act, in reality, had constituted Quebec a French province. It had established the Roman Catholic religion, and introduced the whole body of the French civil law. The English population felt much aggrieved by these changes; and the French themselves were not satisfied with the Act, as the majority of the members of the Council were of English birth.

4. These controversies were suspended during the revolutionary war in the States. The southern colonists made great efforts to induce the Canadians to join them; but they were attended with very partial success. At the peace (1788), several thousands of the United Empire Loyalists, as the adherents of the King in the States were called, migrated to Canada. A large party of them, from New York, settled in Nova Scotia, west of the Bay of Fundy. In 1784 this district was constituted a separate province, styled **New Brunswick**, with Fredericton as capital.

5. The object of the Bill of 1791 was to divide Canada into two provinces, Upper and Lower, with a separate provincial government in each. Though a Government measure, it was heartily supported by Fox. Burke, on the contrary, denounced it in a violent philippic against republican principles and the Revolution in France, and declared that he would hold no intercourse with those who defended them. Fox, who had been his life-long friend, whispered, "There is no loss of friendship, I hope." "Yes," replied Burke, "there is loss of friendship.

[1] *Lord Grenville.*—Third son of the Hon. George Grenville, brother-in-law of the elder Pitt. He was Foreign Secretary in Pitt's Ministry; and became Premier in the "All the Talents" Ministry of 1806.

I know the price of my conduct: our friendship is at an end." The Bill passed, and is known as the **Canada Constitutional Act.** It established a Representative Assembly, a Legislative Council, and a Governor in each province. It did not, however, put an end to the evils which afflicted the colonies.

6. The Republic was established in France in 1792, and one of its first acts was to offer help to the English people against their "tyrannical" Government. When the blood of
1793 Louis stained the scaffold in the following year, war
A.D. was declared against the **French Republic** by England, Holland, Spain, Austria, Prussia, and five smaller States. The strife then kindled continued with little interruption for twenty-two years. It was soon manifest that the energies of France had been braced rather than exhausted by the hurricane of Revolution. Toulon, a strong fortress on the Mediterranean shore, having surrendered to a British fleet, was retaken by the cannon of the Republic, directed chiefly by a little Corsican officer of artillery named Napoleon Buonaparte, who had been much distinguished for mathematics in the military schools.

7. In England, the admirers of the Revolution became bolder. They joined in the cry for a reform of Parliament. The Government became alarmed, and suspended the *Habeas*
1794 *Corpus* Act, besides passing an Act against seditious as-
A.D. semblies. **Horne Tooke,**[1] a clergyman and a member of the Constitution Society, was, with two associates, tried for high treason at the Old Bailey, but was acquitted. Abroad, the English arms were generally successful. Lord Hood took Corsica. At the siege of Calvi, Captain **Horatio Nelson** greatly distinguished himself; but he lost the sight of his right eye in the action. Most of the French settlements in the East and the West Indies were taken.

8. The French, however, had become masters of Flanders, and in 1795 Holland submitted to them. In the same year Prussia made a separate treaty with France, and Spain became her ally. Nevertheless Pitt resolved to prosecute the war with vigour, and succeeded in forming with Russia and Austria the

[1] *Horne Tooke.* — He is well known as the author of the *Diversions of Purley*, one of the earliest books on English etymology.

First Coälition against France. In the following year Spain declared war against England. Notwithstanding Pitt's determination to spare no effort while the war lasted, there can be no doubt of his genuine desire for peace. Negotiations with that view were opened with France in 1796; but they failed. The proposal had Fox's hearty approval; but Burke denounced it as "a regicide peace."

9. In England it was a time of great gloom and distress. The Bank of England had advanced so much money to the Government that it could no longer supply the demands of the public in specie. It therefore stopped cash payments, and issued notes of £1 and £2; and Pitt introduced and passed his **Bank Restriction Act,** prohibiting the Bank from paying in cash sums over 20 shillings (February). The gloom grew deeper when a dangerous mutiny broke out in the Royal Navy. The seamen demanded more pay, better food, better attention when sick, and more liberty when in port. At the Spithead[1] they were easily pacified; but at the **Nore**[2] the mutineers seized the ships and anchored them across the Thames, in order to shut up the mouth of the river. The men did not return to their duty until the ringleaders had been arrested and hanged.

10. Two great naval victories relieved the gloom of the year. In February, off **Cape St. Vincent,**[3] Admiral Jervis and Commodore Nelson, with twenty-one sail, defeated thirty-two Spanish ships of war. In October the ships of Holland were scattered by Admiral Duncan off the Dutch village of **Camperdown.**[4] The former victory prevented an invasion of England by the combined French and Spanish fleets; the latter prevented an invasion of Ireland by the Dutch. On the Continent, Napoleon and Massena broke the power of Austria in a series of brilliant victories, and she had to submit to the humiliating treaty of Campo Formio.[5] This broke up the Coälition.

1797 A.D.

11. Buonaparte spent two campaigns in **Egypt** and **Syria,**

[1] *The Spithead.*—A roadstead between Portsea Island and the Isle of Wight.

[2] *The Nore.* — A roadstead on the Thames, opposite Sheerness.

[3] *Cape St. Vincent.*—The south-western extremity of Portugal.

[4] *Camperdown.*—On the coast of Holland; 27 miles north-west of Amsterdam. Duncan was rewarded with the title, Viscount Duncan of Camperdown.

[5] *Campo Formio.*—A village 66 miles north-east of Venice.

BUONAPARTE AT THE PYRAMIDS.

engaged in a fruitless attempt to open a path to the conquest of India. Sailing from Toulon with a great fleet and army, he took Malta[1] on his way, and landed at Alexandria.[2] Then

[1] *Malta.*—An island in the Mediterranean; 54 miles south-west of Sicily. Chief town, Valetta. In 1530 it was granted by the Emperor Charles V. to the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, then driven from Rhodes by the Turks. It remained in their hands till 1798. In 1800 the British took it, and it has ever since continued one of their most important ocean fortresses.

[2] *Alexandria.*—A city in Egypt, on the Mediterranean, near the west branch of the Nile. It was founded by and named after Alexander the Great.

pressing on to Cairo,[1] he defeated the Mamelukes[2] of Egypt in the Battle of the Pyramids. On the eve of the battle he pointed to the Pyramids and exclaimed, "Soldiers! remember that from these Pyramids forty centuries contemplate your deeds." But he had been followed by Admiral Nelson, who annihilated his fleet as it lay in the Bay of **Aboukir.**[3] The action began at sunset, and lasted until daybreak. Nelson was severely wounded on the head by a splinter of iron. The French flag-ship, *Orient*, blew up during the battle, with the admiral and his crew of 1,000 men. Never was a naval victory more complete than that of **the Nile.** Of thirteen French men-of-war, nine were taken and two burned; and of four frigates, two escaped.

Aug. 1, 1798 A.D.

12. By this brilliant victory the army of Buonaparte was imprisoned amid the sands of Egypt. But, never inactive, he led his soldiers, early in 1799, across the desert between Egypt and Palestine, took the town of Jaffa[4] by storm, and laid siege to **Acre.**[5] Two days before his arrival at the place Sir Sidney

[1] *Cairo.*—The chief city of Egypt; 112 miles south-east of Alexandria. The Pyramids are on the opposite side of the Nile from Cairo.

[2] *Mamelukes.* — Originally a body-guard of the Sultan of Egypt composed of Tartar slaves (1230). By-and-by they acquired supreme power, founding one dynasty in 1254 and another in 1382. From 1507 till 1798 Egypt was governed by twenty-four Mameluke Beys, or governors of provinces. When defeated by Napoleon, they retired into Nubia; but they afterwards recovered Egypt from the Turks. In 1811 they were massacred at Cairo to the number of 1,600.

[3] *Aboukir.*—The bay is east of Alexandria, between Aboukir promontory and the Rosetta mouth of the Nile.

[4] *Jaffa.*—On the coast of Palestine; 50 miles north-west of Jerusalem. It is the Joppa of Scripture.

[5] *Acre.*—On the coast of Syria, near the foot of Mount Carmel. It is famous for its sieges. It was taken by the Crusaders in 1104; by the Saracens in 1187; by the Crusaders again, under Richard I., in 1191, after a siege of two years. It was retaken by the Saracens in 1291, when 60,000 Christians were put to death. It was seized by Ibrahim Pasha in 1832. In 1840 it was taken by England.

Smith had entered the bay with a small squadron. The Turkish commander was on the point of surrendering; but Smith sent seamen and marines, guns and ammunition, into the old fortress of St. John. Additional fortifications were hastily thrown up, and the place was so gallantly defended, that after repeated efforts to storm its walls during two months, the French were forced to retreat to Egypt. Alarming news from Paris caused Buonaparte to leave his soldiers in Egypt, and hurry back to France. The army thus abandoned lost spirit, and was finally routed at **Alexandria** in 1801 by Sir Ralph Abercromby, who received a mortal wound during the action.

13. In no part of Europe did the evil example of the French Revolution bear more bitter fruit than in **Ireland.** In 1780, the *Volunteers*, influenced by the success of the American Colonists, banded themselves together to secure the reform of Parliament. They were dispersed by the skilful policy of the Government. In 1791, the society of *United Irishmen*, formed by Roman Catholics for the same purpose, agitated for the separation of Ireland from the British Empire. A secret correspondence was held with France; and, when all seemed ready, a day was fixed for the outbreak. But the Government, receiving timely notice of the plot, seized the leaders, among whom was Lord Edward Fitzgerald.

14. Then an aimless and unsuccessful rising took place. In **1798** A.D. Antrim and Down it was slightly felt, but it raged cruelly and fiercely for about two months in Wicklow and Wexford. In the Battle of **Vinegar Hill** near Enniscorthy,[1] General Lake routed the great mass of the Irish army (June 21). When all was over, 900 French troops under Humbert landed at Killala Bay in Mayo, and marched inland. In less than a month, however, they were forced to surrender at Carrick-on-Shannon.[2]

15. This unsettled state of affairs showed the necessity of binding Ireland more closely to the Empire. After many debates and much opposition in Ireland, the **Union of the Parliaments** was accomplished. Thenceforward the people

[1] *Enniscorthy.*—Twelve miles northwest of Wexford.

[2] *Carrick-on-Shannon.* — In Leitrim county, about 45 miles from Killala Bay, in the north of Mayo, where they had landed.

of Ireland were to be represented in the Imperial Parliament by thirty-two Lords and one hundred Commoners: their traders obtained many new and valuable privileges, while the taxes were much lighter than those paid in Great Britain. The Union came into effect on the first day of 1801. For some time thereafter there was considerable discontent in Ireland.

Jan. 1, 1801 A.D.

16. It was at this time that Pitt renounced his early views on the representation of the people in Parliament. He thought, however, that the Union with Ireland would be more complete and lasting if the Roman Catholics were "emancipated;" that is to say, if they were allowed to sit in Parliament and to hold public offices, like their fellow-citizens. The King refused to listen to these proposals, and consequently **Pitt resigned**, after having held office for upwards of seventeen years. He was succeeded by Henry Addington (February).

1801 A.D.

---

17. LEADING AUTHORS—CLOSE OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

WILLIAM ROBERTSON, (1721–1793)—minister of the Church of Scotland—Principal of Edinburgh University—author of *Histories of Scotland* (1759), *Charles the Fifth*, and *America*.

OLIVER GOLDSMITH, (1728–1774)—poet, essayist, novelist—author of *The Vicar of Wakefield* (1764), a novel; *The Traveller*, and *The Deserted Village* (1770), poems; *She Stoops to Conquer*, and *The Good-Natured Man*, comedies.

SAMUEL JOHNSON, (1709–1784)—author of Essays in the *Rambler* (1750–1752); *Rasselas*, a tale; an *English Dictionary; Lives of the Poets*.

ADAM SMITH, (1723–1790)—founder of Political Economy—author of *The Wealth of Nations* (1776), showing Labour to be the source of Wealth.

EDWARD GIBBON, (1737–1794)—our greatest historian—author of *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire* (1776–1787).

ROBERT BURNS, (1759–1796)—Scottish lyric poet—author of *Songs, Tam o'Shanter, Cottar's Saturday Night*, &c.

EDMUND BURKE, (1730–1797)—a celebrated orator and statesman—author of an *Essay on the Sublime and Beautiful, Reflections on the French Revolution* (1790).

RICHARD BRINSLEY SHERIDAN, (1751–1816)—theatrical manager and writer of comedies—chief plays, *The Rivals* and *The School for Scandal*—noted also as an orator and a statesman.

WILLIAM COWPER, (1731–1800)—poet—author of *The Task* (1785), *Homer translated* (1791), and many *Hymns* and short poems, of which *John Gilpin* is the most famous—wrote chiefly at Olney in lucid intervals of religious mania.

---

18. LEADING ARTISTS.

THOMAS GAINSBOROUGH, (1727–1788)—born in Suffolk—a fine painter of English landscapes—lived in Ipswich, Bath, and London.

SIR JOSHUA REYNOLDS, (1723–1792)—born in Devonshire—the first President of the Royal Academy—a famous portrait and historical painter—published *Discourses on Painting*—a great friend of Dr. Johnson.

QUESTIONS.—1. When did the French Revolution begin? What were its causes? When were the States-General called together? What events immediately preceded the Revolution? What dynasty was overturned? What followed?

2. What rendered the ferment almost harmless in England? What question was beginning to be agitated there? What alarmed the friends of reform? What view was taken by Fox, Burke, and Pitt respectively?

3. What discussions showed the effects of the Revolution? What was the cause of the difficulties in the government of Canada? What Act had attempted to cure the evils? Why were the English aggrieved by it? Why were the French dissatisfied?

4. What effect had the revolutionary war on these controversies? Who were the United Empire Loyalists? Where did they settle?

5. What was the object of the Bill of 1791? By whom was it supported? How did Burke regard the measure? To what famous quarrel did it lead? By what name is the Act known? What government did it set up in each province?

6. When was the Republic established in France? What was one of its first acts? By what was the execution of Louis XVI. followed? How long did the strife then kindled last? What was the first important exploit of Napoleon Buonaparte?

7. What steps did the English Government take? Who was Horne Tooke? What was the result of his trial? What island did Hood take? What occurred at the siege of Calvi?

8. How was France strengthened in 1795? What states formed the First Coälition against her? For what was Pitt's genuine desire? Who opposed the peace proposals?

9. What was the Bank Restriction Act? Why was it necessary? What were the demands of the mutinous seamen? How was the mutiny at the Nore quelled?

10 What two great naval victories were gained in 1797? By whom was each gained? What did each prevent? How was the Coälition broken up?

11. What was Buonaparte's object in going to Egypt? Where did he defeat the Mamelukes? By whom and where was his fleet destroyed?

12. What was the effect of this victory? Where did Buonaparte lead his army? Who drove him from Acre? Where was his army finally routed? Who was mortally wounded in the action?

13. What measure was taken in 1780 by the Irish malcontents? What was the result of their machinations? What more dangerous conspiracy was formed in 1791? How was the plot defeated?

14. What proceedings followed? In what two counties did the rising chiefly occur? How was it sup-

pressed? In what year was the Battle of Vinegar Hill fought? Where did the French troops land? What was the issue of their attempt?

15. When did the union of Ireland with Great Britain take place? How was Ireland represented in the British Parliament? How was the union regarded by the Irish people?

16. What views did Pitt renounce at that time? What led to his resignation? Who succeeded him?

17. Name, with some particulars, the authors of *The Traveller*, *John Gilpin*, *History of Charles V.*, *Rasselas*, *The Rivals*.

18. Who were the leading artists of the time?

CHAPTER XII.

THE CONTINENTAL WARS.

1. Second Coälition against France.
2. The Armed Neutrality League.
3. "Nelson and the North."
4. The Danes Brothers of the English.
5. The Treaty of Amiens.
6. Renewal of the War.
7. Emmet's Rising in Dublin.
8. The Volunteers.
9. Pitt's Second Ministry.
10. Third Coälition against France.
11. The Battle of Trafalgar.
12. Nelson's "Immortal Signal."
13. Collingwood's Column in Action.
14. Nelson's Column in Action.
15. The Death of Nelson.
16. Austerlitz—The Coälition broken up.
17. The Death of Pitt.
18. Fourth Coälition against France—The Berlin Decree.
19. Canning Foreign Secretary.
20. Seizure of the Danish Fleet.

1. Nelson's great victory at the Nile (1798) had enabled Pitt to form a **Second Coälition against France** (1799), in which England was joined by Russia, Austria, Portugal, Turkey, and Naples. Three months after that arrangement was completed, Buonaparte suddenly returned from the East, as has been mentioned already, overthrew the Directory, and established the Consulate. He was made First Consul for ten years; and wishing to consolidate his government, he wrote to the King of England proposing peace. Pitt rejected his overtures, and the war continued. Buonaparte then hurled his legions once more against Austria. With 36,000 men he crossed the Great St. Bernard,[1] and poured his army like an avalanche on the plains of Lombardy. Austria, humbled on the fields of Marengo[2] (June) and Hohenlinden[3] (December), was constrained to accept of terms of peace at Luneville[4] early in 1801. **1800** A.D.

2. Meanwhile Buonaparte had succeeded in detaching Rus-

[1] *Great St. Bernard.*—In the Alps.
[2] *Marengo.*—Near Alessandria; 48 miles south-east of Turin.
[3] *Hohenlinden.*—In Bavaria.
[4] *Luneville.*—In France; 15 miles south-east of Nancy.

sia from the Coälition. Malta, which had been captured by Buonaparte on his way to Egypt, surrendered to England in September 1800. The island had been in the possession of the Knights of St. John for two centuries and a half. The Czar Paul, as titular Grand Master of the Order, thought himself entitled to it, and was much annoyed that the English retained it. He also objected to the right claimed by England to search neutral ships. On these pretexts, the Czar formed, with Prussia, Sweden, and Denmark, the **Armed Neutrality League** of the Northern Powers. England was thus left almost alone in the struggle with France.

3. The occasion brought forth the man fit to deal with it. A fleet of eighteen sail under Sir Hyde Parker and **Lord Nelson** left Yarmouth Roads for the Sound on the 12th of March. Nelson undertook to reduce the batteries of **Copenhagen** with ten ships; and, having got twelve, he proceeded to take soundings and to lay down buoys in the winding channel which led up to the Danish position. In the hottest of the cannonade a signal fluttered on the top-mast of Parker's ship, commanding Nelson to cease firing. The hero turned his telescope towards the flag, but held it to his sightless eye, and went on with the attack, desiring his own signal for "closer action" to be nailed to the mast!

April 2, 1801 A.D.

4. At about two in the afternoon the Danish fire slackened and then ceased. Some of the ships which had struck fired on boats that were pulling to take possession of them; upon which Nelson wrote as follows to the Crown Prince:—"Vice-Admiral Lord Nelson has been commanded to spare Denmark when she

no longer resists. The line of defence which covered her shores has struck to the British flag; but if the firing is continued on the part of Denmark, he must set on fire all the prizes that he has taken, without having the power of saving the men who have so nobly defended them. The brave Danes are the brothers, and should never be the enemies of the English." This humane and dignified remonstrance had its effect. A flag of truce came from the shore, and next day the victor landed to tell the Crown Prince why the battle had been fought. This "glorious disobedience" was rewarded with promotion to the rank of Viscount.

5. A second and fatal blow to the Northern League was the death of its originator, the Czar Paul, who was assassinated by the Governor of St. Petersburg and other malcontents. His successor, Alexander, formed a treaty with England, to which Denmark and Sweden acceded. The way being thus smoothed for a general peace, Amiens[1] was appointed as the place for its discussion. After some wrangling about Malta, the Treaty of **Amiens** was concluded and signed on the 27th of March 1802. The parties to it were England, France, Spain, and Holland. France gained unduly, both in Flanders and in the East. Yet it was well known that the peace was a shallow pretence on the part of Buonaparte, and every one regarded it as merely an Armed Truce. The war had raised the National Debt of England to £520,000,000 sterling.

March 27, 1802 A.D.

6. The peace was of short duration. The English Government knew well that Buonaparte (now First Consul for life) continued his preparations for war. He did his utmost, by slights and insults, to provoke England to a declaration of hostility. On one thing England was resolved,—that **Malta** should not be evacuated until it was certain that Buonaparte would not seize it for himself. The Government proposed to hold it for ten years, and then restore it to the natives. This *ultimatum*[2] being rejected, war with France was declared by the King on the 18th of May 1803. Four days later, a decree of the First Consul threw into

1803 A.D.

[1] *Amiens.*—On the Somme; 71 miles north of Paris.

[2] *Ultimatum.*—Last offer or condition.

prison several thousand English tourists, whom the peace had induced to cross the Channel.

7. In Ireland an outbreak, which might have been serious had it not been premature, took place on the 23rd of July. A store of gunpowder having exploded, the insurgents were forced into action; and, breaking into various bands in the streets which branch from the Castle of Dublin, they were dispersed by the fire of the military and the police. The murder of Chief-Justice Kilwarden degraded their enterprise. **Robert Emmet**, the leader of the rising, was seized in his lurking-place among the hills of Wicklow, was brought to trial, condemned, and executed, as were also seventeen of his accomplices.

8. The great terror of a French invasion took a very distinct shape in the summer of 1803. One hundred thousand men lay encamped at Boulogne; and the wings of this great central body spread to the number of 50,000 more from Brest on the one hand to Antwerp on the other. Quietly and resolutely England collected her energies for the conflict. In addition to her previous resources, a force of **Volunteers** begirt her with a ring of defence. Civilians to the number of 300,000 went to drill and learned the use of arms. Gunboats also clustered along the line of the Cinque Ports. The watchfulness of Nelson prevented the invasion. Suddenly the "Army of England" was marched to the Danube to oppose Austria.

9. When the Addington Ministry broke down in 1804, the King commissioned **Pitt** to form a new Cabinet, under the special condition that Fox was to have no place in it. Pitt further agreed to postpone the question of the Roman Catholic disabilities. Henry Dundas, now Lord Melville,[1] was First Lord of the Admiralty, and Castlereagh acted as President of the Board of Control, while Pitt took the Exchequer for himself. The Treasurership of the Navy was given to George Canning, a young statesman of rare wit and eloquence, who, as Under Secretary, had been a valuable member of Pitt's earlier Administration. Fox led the Opposition

May 10, **1804** A.D.

[1] *Melville.*—In April 1805 he was compelled to resign, his impeachment on a charge of misapplying the public money having been carried in the House of Commons. He was tried in April 1806, and was fully acquitted, although it was admitted that his paymaster and confidential agent, Mr. Trotter, had speculated with public money for his own advantage.

in the Commons, and Grenville in the Lords. In the same month, Buonaparte was proclaimed Emperor of the French, with the title Napoleon I.

10. Pitt then formed—with Russia, Austria, and Sweden—his **Third Coälition against France.** France was joined by Spain. Napoleon once more meditated an invasion of England, before marching against Austria. His great difficulty was, that he could not get command of the Channel, so watchful were Nelson and the other English Admirals. To decoy Nelson from his post, Napoleon ordered his Admiral (Villeneuve) across the Atlantic, to threaten the West Indies. Nelson followed him. Villeneuve, escaping Nelson's notice, suddenly returned to Spanish waters. Nelson returned to England to rest; but when he heard that the French and Spanish fleets had taken refuge in Cadiz harbour, where they were watched by Admiral Collingwood, he at once tendered his services to Pitt. On the 14th September his flag ran to the top-mast of the *Victory* in Portsmouth harbour.

11. A fortnight later he was within reach of Cadiz. Hiding behind Cape St. Mary—north-west of the entrance to Cadiz harbour—he watched the foe by means of a few frigates, as eagerly, to use his own phrase, "as a cat watches mice." On the 19th October, Villeneuve stole out of the harbour, hoping to reach the Strait of Gibraltar, and ultimately Toulon, without notice. Nelson feared that his prey had escaped him, but at daybreak of the 21st he sighted a great line of vessels between him and the low dark headland of **Trafalgar.**[1]

12. The combined fleets of France and Spain amounted to thirty-three sail of the line, five frigates, and two brigs. Nelson had twenty-seven first-rates, four frigates, one schooner, and one cutter. A presentiment of death clouded the spirit of the hero as he neared the foe; and one of the first things he did, after giving the signal of approach, was to write in his diary a short prayer. In two columns, the one led by Nelson in the *Victory*, the other by Collingwood in the *Royal Sovereign*, the line of battle bore down on the enemy, whose ships had drifted out of a straight line

Oct. 21, 1805 A.D.

[1] *Trafalgar* is a low sandy ridge of coast half-way between Cadiz and the Strait of Gibraltar. (See ROYAL READER No. VI., p. 48.)

into the form of an irregular crescent. Words were then signalled from the mast-head of the *Victory*, which have ever since stirred the heart like a peal of national music,—"**England expects every man to do his duty.**"

13. The French opened the action by firing single shots to try their range. Nelson paced the quarter-deck of the *Victory* in his well-worn frock-coat, whose tarnished stars on the left breast displayed the decoration of the Bath. At ten minutes past twelve **Collingwood** reached the centre of the enemy's line. For quarter of an hour the *Royal Sovereign* was surrounded by five vessels of the enemy, which fired at her, and of course at one another, in the most reckless style. Tiring soon of this, and pressed by other English ships that had followed their noble leader into the heart of action, four of these vessels turned to defend themselves. The line of Villeneuve, though yet unbroken, was bent by this attack in a very confusing way.

14. **Nelson** then directed his flag-ship, the *Victory*, against that horn of the French crescent which pointed towards Cadiz. The *Santissima Trinidad* was the goal at which he aimed his course; and, as he bore steadily down, a galling fire tore his rigging and raked his deck. Like Collingwood, he bore the brunt of a cannonade from several of the foe at one time. Yet not a match was laid to touch-hole in the *Victory* until she reached the *Bucentaur*, in which Villeneuve was thought to be. Then out burst from every port in the side of Nelson's ship a jet of fire, hurling double and treble shot into the hull, which in two minutes swung a mere log on the rolling sea.

15. The interest of the scene deepened when the rigging of the *Victory* became entangled with that of the *Redoubtable*. The latter shut her lower ports, lest boarders might leap through; and the ships, whose guns lay almost mouth to mouth, continued to crush each other's oaken sides with heavy shot. Every stage or cradle on the masts of the *Redoubtable* was filled with French riflemen, who fired at the officers and men on the decks of the *Victory*. A one-armed officer with stars on his breast, walking on the quarter-deck of the English ship, attracted the eye of a rifleman in the mizzen-top of the French vessel. He fired; and **Nelson fell**, shot through epaulet, shoulder, and spine. It was a quarter past one; and three hours later

he died, having breathed into the ear of Captain Hardy his last words—"Thank God, I have done my duty." Before his spirit fled he was cheered with the news of a complete victory. Ere the battle ceased, nineteen ships of the line had struck their flags. Nelson was buried in St. Paul's Cathedral, London, the whole nation mourning for its "darling hero." His brother was made an earl, and large grants of money were made to him and to his sister.

16. While England thus triumphed at sea, Napoleon, as usual, was successful on land. In October he caught General Mack at **Ulm**,[1] and forced him to surrender with 28,000 Austrians. Napoleon then occupied Vienna. **1805** A.D. In December he defeated the Emperors of Austria and Russia at **Austerlitz**,[2] and forced on Austria the Treaty of Presburg.[3] This broke up the Coälition. At the same time Prussia renounced her alliance with England, and joined France, in the hope of acquiring Hanover.

17. In January 1806, **Pitt** succumbed to the toils of statesmanship. He was only forty-six years of age when he died. A magnificent public funeral, and a grant of £40,000 to pay his debts, testified the regard in which he was held by his contemporaries. **1806** A.D. **Lord Grenville**[4] became Premier, with Fox as Foreign Secretary. The friends of this Ministry boasted that it contained "All the Talents" of the country; a description which its enemies applied to it in derision. In September Fox died, aged fifty-seven. He received a public funeral, and his body was laid in Westminster Abbey, beside that of his rival, Pitt. His place as Foreign Secretary was taken by Lord Howick, afterwards Earl Grey.

18. The new Foreign Secretary succeeded in forming a **Fourth Coälition against France.** It was joined by Russia, Prussia, and Saxony. The conduct of Prussia not unnaturally

1806.—London streets were first lighted with gas. Fulton an American, launched the first regular steamboat on the Hudson river.

[1] *Ulm.*—In Wurtemberg on the Danube; 45 miles south-east of Stuttgart.

[2] *Austerlitz.*—In Moravia; 70 miles north-east of Vienna. The battle-field is two miles west of the town.

[3] *Presburg.*—Thirty-five miles east of Vienna.

[4] *Lord Grenville.*—Son of the Hon. George Grenville, who was Premier from 1763 till 1765, and who died in 1770.

excited Napoleon's wrath. She had occupied Hanover in April, and, though then at peace with England, had accepted it from Napoleon. But the erection of the Confederation of the Rhine[1] in July excited her jealousy, and in October she declared war against France. At Prussia, therefore, Napoleon resolved to strike the first blow. Within a week of the declaration of war, he inflicted on her the irretrievable defeat of **Jena**;[2] and on the same day another division of his army overthrew the King of Prussia at Auerstadt, ten miles farther north. Napoleon then marched to Berlin, and issued thence his famous **Berlin Decree** against English commerce. This famous Decree was the beginning of Napoleon's Continental System. It declared the British Islands to be in a state of blockade, and ordered all Englishmen in countries occupied by the French to be seized as prisoners of war. The English Government retaliated by issuing **Orders in Council** prohibiting trade with France and her allies (1807).

19. Meantime the Ministry of "All the Talents" had fallen. Grenville proposed to admit Roman Catholics into the army and the navy. This excited the alarm of the King on the point on which he was most nervous. Not content with the withdrawal of the Bill by the Ministry, he dismissed the ministers. The new Premier was the **Duke of Portland**, and **Canning** was Foreign Secretary.

20. Canning saw with alarm the union of Napoleon and the Czar, who, meeting upon a raft in the river Niemen, concluded the Treaty of **Tilsit**. He knew that Napoleon meant to seize the fleets of Denmark and Portugal, and use them in his designs on England. With all speed and secrecy, therefore, he sent out an expedition to Denmark, under Admiral Gambier and Lord Cathcart, who was assisted by General Wellesley. Caution was necessary, as a French army lay ready for action close to the Danish frontier. On the refusal of the Danes to surrender their fleet, shot and shell began to fall on **Copenhagen** with such devastating fury that the whole city seemed wrapped in flames. Opening on the 2nd of September 1807, the

[1] *Confederation of the Rhine.* — A Germanic league. (See p. 441, par. 10.)

[2] *Jena.* —In Saxe-Weimar; 50 miles south-west of Leipsic. It has a famous university.

fire continued to roar till the evening of the 5th, when the Danish General agreed to surrender the ships.[1]

QUESTIONS.—1. When was the Second Coälition against France formed? By what States? What led Buonaparte to make overtures for peace? What country did he then attack? What victories were gained?

2. What led to the defection of Russia from the Coälition? What league was then formed by the Czar?

3. What task did Admiral Nelson undertake? What order of Parker's did he disregard?

4. What led to Nelson's letter of remonstrance to the Crown Prince? What effect had it? How was Nelson rewarded?

5. What was the second blow to the Northern League? Where was a general treaty concluded? Who were parties to it? What power gained unduly? What was the peace in reality? To what did the National Debt of England then amount?

6. How did Buonaparte provoke a renewal of the war? What led to the declaration of war? How did Buonaparte treat the English tourists?

7. What led to the rising being premature in Ireland? Who was its leader? What was his fate? How many of his accomplices were executed?

8. Where had a French army for the invasion of England been gathered? What new means of defence did England adopt? What prevented the invasion?

9. Who succeeded Addington as Premier? Who was specially excluded? Who was First Lord of the Admiralty? Who was Treasurer of the Navy? Who led the Opposition? What title did Buonaparte assume?

10. What States formed the Third Coälition against France? What did Napoleon again meditate? What prevented this? What did he do to remove the obstacle? What followed? What led Nelson once more to volunteer his services to the Government?

11. What position did Nelson take up? What movement of the enemy led to the Battle of Trafalgar? On what day was it fought?

12. What was the strength of each fleet? What was one of Nelson's first acts, after giving the signal for approach? How was the English line disposed? What was Nelson's famous signal?

13. In what position was Collingwood's ship placed? What was the effect of his attack?

14. Against what did Nelson direct his attack? In what position was his flag-ship? Till what time did it reserve its fire? What was the effect then?

15. With what ship did the *Victory* get entangled? With whom were its "cradles" filled? How had Nelson made himself conspicuous? Where was he wounded? When did he die? What were his last words? What news cheered him before he died? Where was he buried?

16. Where was Napoleon successful in October? And in December? What followed? What course did Prussia take?

17. When did Pitt die? How old was he then? How did his contemporaries testify their regard for him? What Ministry succeeded? When did Fox die? Who succeeded him?

18. In what did the new Foreign Secretary succeed? Who joined it? At which power did Napoleon resolve to strike first? Why? Where was Prussia humbled? What did Napoleon issue from Berlin? What was its object? How did the English Government retaliate?

19. What caused the fall of the Grenville Ministry? Who was the new Premier? And Foreign Secretary?

20. What treaty alarmed Canning? Of what intention of Napoleon's was he aware? What did he therefore do? What was the result of the expedition?

[1] The island of Heligoland (off the mouths of the Elbe and Weser) was then seized by England. Its cession was confirmed by treaty in 1814.

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. 1789.—The **Great French Revolution** commenced with the destruction of the Bastille, or state prison of Paris, and the summary execution of the governor and other officers. The *Tiers Etat* (Third Estate), or Commons members of the States-General, constituted themselves a National Assembly, which became the Constituent Assembly in 1790. This gave place to the Legislative Assembly in 1791. The King and Queen attempted flight, but were arrested. The Assembly was superseded in 1792 by the National Convention, which proclaimed France a Republic. Louis XVI. was beheaded at the beginning of 1793, and his Queen before the end of the year. This was the time of the Reign of Terror, during which a band of demagogues, headed by Robespierre, shed the best blood in France like water. Its tyranny came to an end with the execution of Robespierre in 1794. The Directory succeeded the Convention in 1795. It gave place to a Military Dictatorship, with **Napoleon Buonaparte** as First Consul, in 1799. Buonaparte was made Consul for life in 1802, and Emperor in 1804. The successive forms of government between 1789 and 1804 were—absolute monarchy, limited monarchy, republic, oligarchy, aristocracy, dictatorship, and empire.

2. 1791.—The Emperor Leopold II. concluded a treaty with Prussia against France. The allies were defeated both in Belgium and in Italy. After the defeat of the Austrians at the Bridge of Lodi[1] (1796), Napoleon forced them to conclude a peace (1797) which gave Belgium to France in exchange for Venice.

3. 1793.—Russia and Prussia took advantage of the disturbed state of Europe to effect a **further partition of Poland.**

4. 1795.—The **last partition of Poland** took place, by which it was annihilated as an independent monarchy. A great rising of the Poles under Kosciusko, to recover their lost territory, formed the excuse for its final dismemberment. Russia was thus brought more directly into the heart of Europe, and afterwards wielded greater influence as a European Power. The remainder of Poland was annexed to Russia as a province in 1832.

5. 1795.—The French republican army drove the House of Orange from power in Holland, and established the **Batavian Republic.**

6. 1798.—Napoleon invaded **Egypt,** and scattered the Mamelukes in the Battle of the Pyramids.

7. 1798.—The French dashed into Switzerland, to secure the treasure at Berne. They upset the cantonal government, setting up a new republic on the French model. The Swiss resisted, and in 1803 a new league was formed on the old cantonal plan. It was re-formed in

[1] *Lodi.*—In Lombardy (North Italy); 19 miles south of Milan.

1814; and a new constitution was introduced in 1848, with Berne as the sole capital.

8. **1801.**—The Treaty of Luneville, between France and the German Empire, made the Rhine the boundary, from its mouth nearly to its source (February).

9. **1802.**—The Treaty of **Amiens** was signed by England, France, Spain, and Holland. England restored to France and her allies all her conquests, except Ceylon (taken from Holland) and Trinidad (from Spain). Malta was to be restored to the Knights of St. John within three months of the ratification of the treaty.

10. **1805.**—Napoleon defeated the Russians and the Austrians at **Austerlitz.** The Emperor Francis I. had been declared hereditary Emperor of Austria in 1804. The title of Emperor of Germany was thenceforth dropped. This was the close of the Holy Roman Empire, founded by Charlemagne in 800. Napoleon formed the other German States—some of which, as Bavaria, Wurtemberg, and Saxony, were erected into monarchies—into the Confederation of the Rhine, with himself as Protector. It lasted from 1806 till 1814.

11. **1806.**—Napoleon shattered the power of Prussia at **Jena.** In the same year he made one brother (Joseph) King of Naples, which was separated from Sicily; and another (Louis) King of Holland. When Joseph was made King of Spain in 1808, Napoleon conferred the crown of Naples on Joachim Murat, his brother-in-law. Louis abdicated in 1810, and Holland was annexed to France till 1813, when the House of Orange was recalled; and the seventeen provinces were united as the Kingdom of the Netherlands, under William-Frederick; William II., 1840; William III., 1849. Murat reigned at Naples till 1815.

QUESTIONS.—1. When did the great French Revolution begin? With what event? Mention the different forms of government in France between 1789 and 1804.—2. What powers combined against France in 1791? With what result? When was peace concluded? What exchange of territory was then effected?—3. When was the second partition of Poland made? What suggested it?—4. When did the final partition take place? What formed the excuse for it? How did it increase Russian influence? What became of the remainder of Poland?—5. Whom did the French drive from power in Holland? When? What kind of government was established?—6. When did Napoleon invade Egypt? What battle did he gain?—7. What change of government did the French attempt in Switzerland? What led them to invade that country? What did the Swiss do? When was their government re-formed? When was a new constitution introduced?—8. What was the effect of the treaty between France and Germany in 1801?—9. When was the Treaty of Amiens concluded? By whom? What were its chief provisions?—10. What great victory did Napoleon gain in 1805? When did the Empire of Austria begin? What Empire then came to an end? How did Napoleon deal with the other German States?—11. What great victory did Napoleon gain in 1806? Whom did he make King of Naples in that year? To what throne was Joseph transferred in 1808? Who then became King of Naples? How long did he reign there? Who was made King of Holland in 1806? What were the subsequent changes in the Dutch Government?

CHAPTER XIII.

THE PENINSULAR WAR.

1. The French Occupation of Portugal.
2. The Spanish Crown.
3. Appeal to England.
4. Moore's Retreat.
5. Battle of Corunna.
6. Battle of Talavera.
7. The Walcheren Expedition.
8. Duel of Canning and Castlereagh.
9. The Heights of Torres Vedras.
10. The Burdett Riots—Reform.
11. The Regency.
12. The Fourth Campaign in the Peninsula.
13. Commercial Distress — The Luddites.
14. Wellington at Madrid.
15. Death of Perceval.
16. Napoleon's Russian Campaign.
17. Vitoria and Toulouse—First Peace of Paris.
18. War with the United States.
19. Peace of Ghent.
20. The Duke of Wellington.

1. PORTUGAL, which had always been the faithful ally of England, was reluctant to accept the Berlin Decree. Napoleon, annoyed by this show of spirit, resolved to crush the little country by a single blow. He formed a secret treaty with Spain, by which he obtained leave to send his troops through that country to the frontier of **Portugal.** He published a proclamation that "the House of Braganza[1] had ceased to reign in Europe;" and sent General Junot with 30,000 men to take possession of Lisbon. On his approach the Prince-Regent[2] and the Royal Family of Portugal sailed to Brazil. Junot then occupied Portugal in the name of the French Emperor.

2. Meanwhile a quarrel was disturbing the **Royal Family of Spain.** Ferdinand, the heir-apparent to the crown, was annoyed by the ascendency possessed by Godoy,[3] the minister of state of Charles IV., and the favourite of the Queen. The Prince intrigued against Godoy, and therefore quarrelled with his father. An insurrection in Madrid in March 1808 led to the abdication of Charles and the proclamation of Ferdinand.

[1] *House of Braganza.*—Philip II. of Spain seized Portugal in 1580. In 1640 the Spaniards were driven out by John, Duke of Braganza, who was proclaimed King as John IV. The House of Braganza still holds the Portuguese throne.

[2] *Prince-Regent.*—His mother, Queen Maria I., had fallen into a state of melancholy and derangement in 1792. On her death in 1816, he succeeded her as John VI., and returned to Lisbon in 1821.

[3] *Godoy* (Don Manuel).—He was of humble birth, and began life as a private in the Royal Guards. He owed his promotion to the favour of the Queen, Louisa. Having in 1795 concluded with Buonaparte the Treaty of Basle between Spain and France, he was afterwards known as "the Prince of the Peace."

Within a week of this event General Murat entered Madrid with a French army. First Ferdinand and then Charles was lured to Bayonne,[1] to hold an interview with the French Emperor. Partly by artifice and partly by menace, both father and son were induced to resign all their rights to the Spanish throne into the hands of Napoleon. He then made his brother Joseph, who had for some time held the throne of Naples, King of Spain.

3. The National party in Spain rose in arms against this usurpation, and appealed to England for help. Hence arose the **Peninsular War,** in which Napoleon's ambition received its first serious check. The real struggle was not for the possession of Spain and Portugal. It was a conflict between the despotism which Napoleon was trying to establish all over Europe, and free institutions represented by England. Sir Arthur Wellesley, already distinguished in Indian wars, was sent to the Peninsula with 10,000 men. **1808** Landing at **Mondego**[2] Bay in Portugal, he defeated A.D. Marshal Junot at *Vimiera*[3] on the 21st of August.

4. Sir Hew Dalrymple, who then took the command, made with Junot a treaty called the *Convention of Cintra,*[4] actually signed at Lisbon, by which the French were allowed to evacuate Portugal with all their arms and warlike stores. For this foolish lenience Sir Hew was recalled and censured, and Sir **John Moore** took his place. Wellesley was also recalled, but was freed from blame. Deceived by promises of aid which the Spanish Junta[5] could not fulfil, Moore led his army into the heart of Leon; but there he received the alarming news that, notwithstanding the gallant defence of Saragossa[6] by the Spaniards, Napoleon was master of Madrid. There was no course open to the English leader but a retreat towards the shore of Galicia.[7] The sufferings of the army during that backward march were past description.

[1] *Bayonne.* — In the south-west of France, near the mouth of the Adour, less than 20 miles from the Spanish frontier. The *bayonet* was first made there; hence its name.

[2] *Mondego Bay.*—At the mouth of the river Mondego, on the coast of Portugal, nearly midway between the Douro and the Tagus.

[3] *Vimiera.*—Thirty-five miles north of Lisbon.

[4] *Cintra.*—Fourteen miles north-west of Lisbon.

[5] *Junta.*—Council of State.

[6] *Saragossa.*—Or Zaragoza, 176 miles north-east of Madrid.

[7] *Galicia.*—The north-western corner of Spain

It was mid-winter; food was scarcely to be had; and Soult pressed constantly on the rear.

5. When the English, famished and rag-clad, reached **Corunna,**[1] their ships had not yet arrived, and Soult was close upon them. Facing round, they moved to meet him, and won a brilliant and decided victory. Moore, killed by a cannon-ball towards the close of the action, was laid in a soldier's grave on the ramparts of Corunna.

Jan. 16, 1809 A.D.

6. Sir Arthur Wellesley then again took the command of the army. Invading Spain, he won a great battle at **Talavera**[2] on the banks of the Tagus. For this victory he was created Viscount Wellington. But the approaches to Madrid being covered by three French armies, under Soult, Ney, and Mortier, he was obliged to fall back on the frontiers of Portugal. Austria during this year made a desperate effort to retrieve the glory of her arms; but on the field of *Wagram*[3] her power was again shattered by Napoleon, who dictated terms of peace to the Emperor Francis in his summer palace of Schönbrunn.

July 28.

7. To aid Austria in her struggle against Napoleon, the ill-fated **Walcheren**[4] expedition was sent to the coast of the Netherlands. One hundred thousand men were placed under the command of the Earl of Chatham, elder brother of Pitt. The object of the movement was to

July.

---

[1] *Corunna.* — On the north-western coast of Galicia. For an interesting detailed account of "The Battle of Corunna, and the Death of Moore," see ROYAL READER No. VI., pp. 18–21.

[2] *Talavera.* — Seventy-five miles south-west of Madrid.

[3] *Wagram.* — Eleven miles north-east of Vienna. *Schönbrunn* is a suburb of Vienna, 2 miles south-west of the city. It has beautiful gardens.

[4] *Walcheren* (pronounced Wal'cherĕn). — An island in the province of Zeeland (Holland), between the east and the west Scheldt. It is 11 miles long and 10 broad.

seize the French batteries on the Scheldt, and destroy the naval works at Antwerp; but on the marshy island of Walcheren disease swept off the troops in thousands, and only a wreck of the splendid force returned to Britain in December.

8. Canning had objected to the Walcheren expedition long before it sailed. Acting as Foreign Secretary, he insisted on the unfitness of Viscount Castlereagh to hold the War Secretaryship, and told the Duke of Portland that unless a change were made he would resign. Castlereagh sent a challenge to the Foreign Secretary. They met on Putney Heath, and Canning got a slight flesh-wound. Both ministers resigned office (October), and soon afterwards the Portland Ministry was broken up. **Spencer Perceval** then became Premier, with the Marquis Wellesley as Foreign Secretary. Lord Palmerston and Mr. (afterwards Sir Robert) Peel held subordinate posts in this Ministry.

October 1809 A.D.

9. Portugal was the scene of the next Peninsular campaign. The armies of France were concentrated in that country for the purpose of driving the English to their ships; but in the Battle of *Busaco*[1] (September 27) Wellington repulsed Massena with heavy loss. Then, retreating to the heights of **Torres Vedras,**[2] some distance north of Lisbon, he took up a position from which no efforts of the French marshals could dislodge him. The war in Spain was carried on chiefly by irregular troops called *Guerillas.*

1810 A.D.

10. During the greater part of the year 1810, the citizens of London were kept in a ferment by the **Burdett Riots**; in connection with which the conduct of the war was mixed up with the character of the government and the need for parliamentary reform. In January the unfortunate Walcheren expedition was again discussed in the House of Commons. This was followed by the city of London presenting an address to the King, calling for an inquiry into "the national misfortunes" at home and abroad. The address was rejected, whereupon the citizens declared this to be proof of the "shameful inadequacy

[1] *Busaco.*—Thirty miles north-east of Mondego Bay.

[2] *Torres Vedras.*—A village 27 miles north-west of Lisbon. Wellington's line of defences extended from the Tagus to the Atlantic.

of the representation of the people in the Commons' House," and voted thanks to **Sir Francis Burdett,** who had revived the question in 1809. Burdett then published a speech, in which he spoke contemptuously of the House of Commons. For this he was arrested amid great excitement, his house in London having to be stormed by constables before he could be captured. During all the time that Burdett was confined in the Tower (from April till June) public meetings were held in the chief towns. The prevailing discontent was increased by great commercial distress. Ireland contributed its share to the general confusion, Daniel O'Connell having this year commenced an agitation for the repeal of the Union.

11. Before the end of the year, an important constitutional question was settled by Parliament. The King's mind, long tottering, had given way; blindness, too, had come upon him. The appointment of a Regent became necessary. The question

of the exclusive right of the Prince of Wales to the Regency had been keenly discussed on the occasion of the King's illness in 1788. Pitt had then maintained, in opposition to Fox, that the appointment lay with Parliament, and a Bill for the Prince's Regency was in progress, when the King recovered. On this occasion the right of Parliament to settle the matter was assumed; and before the year closed, the Prince of Wales was appointed Regent, under certain restrictions as to the granting of peerages and pensions. The Prince of Wales was accordingly installed with due pomp and ceremony on the 5th February 1811. **Feb. 5, 1811 A.D.**

12. Three important victories marked the **fourth campaign** in the Peninsula. Graham defeated Marshal Victor at *Barrosa*[1] (March 5). Massena was routed by the English at *Fuentes d'Onoro*[2] (May 5). More decisive still was the victory of **Albuera**[3] (May 16), where Soult, marching to relieve the frontier fortress of Badajoz, besieged by Beresford, was repulsed with great slaughter. **1811 A.D.**

13. The long war had now begun to tell heavily on English commerce, and there were many bankruptcies in London and other cities. An ignorant prejudice against the use of machinery in the cotton manufacture also led to much distress. The **Luddites**[4] began their destruction of factories at Nottingham in November. The mania soon spread to other manufacturing towns, the rioters supposing that machinery would keep them out of employment. These fanatical outbreaks continued during the next six or seven years, and they were not suppressed until some of the rioters had been brought to the scaffold.

14. Holding Portugal as a base of operations on which he could at any time fall back, Wellington invaded Spain for the third time. *Ciudad Rodrigo* and *Badajoz*, great **1812 A.D.**

---

[1] *Barrosa.*—A village in the extreme south of Spain, about 16 miles south-east of Cadiz.

[2] *Fuentes d'Onoro.*—In Spain, near the Portuguese frontier; 16 miles south-west of Ciudad Rodrigo.

[3] *Albuera.*—In Spain; 13 miles south-east of Badajoz, which is 120 miles east of Lisbon.

[4] *Luddites.*—They took their name from Ned Lud, an idiot, who broke some frames in a fit of passion. The inventions of Arkwright (water-frame, 1769), Crompton (mule, 1779), and Cartwright (power-loom, 1785), had given a great impetus to the cotton manufacture. Since machinery was introduced, the number of hands employed in the cotton manufacture has increased tenfold.

forts which guarded the western frontier of Spain, soon fell before him. The defeat of Marmont at *Salamanca*[1] opened the way to **Madrid**, into which the victor led his troops on the 12th of August amid the rejoicings of all Spain. But the approach of two French armies, marching in hot haste from the south and the east, forced him to retreat on Portugal.

July 22, 1812 A.D.

15. In the spring of this year the Premier, Mr. Perceval, was shot in the lobby of the House of Commons by a merchant named Bellingham, whose business had been ruined by the war. The **Earl of Liverpool** became Premier, and Viscount Castlereagh Foreign Secretary. Mr. Robert Peel was Chief Secretary for Ireland, and organized in that capacity the new police, which received the name of "Peelers" from him.

16. Meanwhile the empire of Napoleon had received a heavy blow in the defeat of his Russian campaign. With an army of nearly half a million, he had penetrated the vast territory of the Czars to its very heart. But the flames of **Moscow**, kindled in self-defence by the Russians themselves, drove him back. In all history there is nothing more appalling than the story of his retreat. When the winter snow melted, the bodies of 400,000 men lay between Moscow and the Niemen.[2]

17. Step by step the French eagles were driven across the Pyrenees. The decisive battle was fought at **Vittoria**[3] in Biscay. The capture of *San Sebastian*[4] and *Pamplona*[5] speedily followed; and the victorious Wellington, crossing the Bidassoa[6] into France, scattered the remnant of Soult's army on the 10th of April 1814 in the Battle of **Toulouse.**[7] Six days earlier, Napoleon, routed in the

June 21, 1813 A.D.

[1] *Salamanca.*—One hundred and ten miles north-west of Madrid.

[2] *The Niemen.*—A river in the east of Prussia, and west of Russia. The distance from Moscow to the Niemen is 600 miles. (See ROYAL READER No. VI., p. 114.)

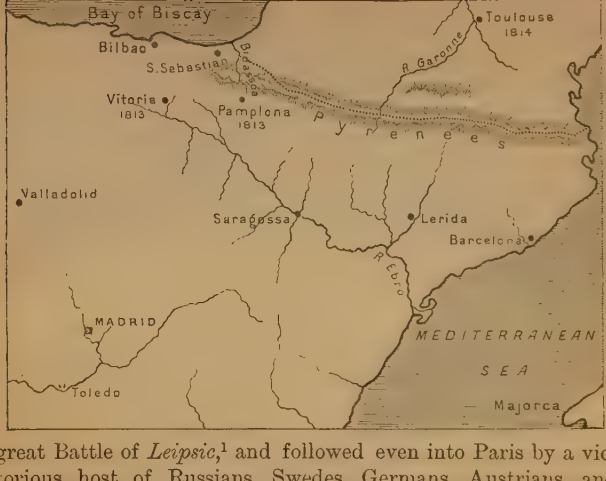
[3] *Vittoria.*—One hundred and twenty miles north-west of Saragossa, and 30 south of Bilbao, on the Bay of Biscay.

[4] *San Sebastian.*—A strongly fortified city on the Bay of Biscay, near the French frontier, 50 miles north-east of Vitoria. It had been held by the French since 1808.

[5] *Pamplona.*—A fortified town, 50 miles east of Vitoria, and 20 from the French frontier.

[6] *The Bidassoa.*—A small river forming, on the west, the boundary between France and Spain.

[7] *Toulouse.*—A city in the south of France, 139 miles south-east of Bordeaux, and 150 from the Bidassoa. It was the capital of the old province of Languedoc.



great Battle of *Leipsic*,[1] and followed even into Paris by a victorious host of Russians, Swedes, Germans, Austrians, and Prussians, had abdicated the throne of France. The Bourbons returned to Paris and Madrid. On the 30th of May 1814 the first Peace of **Paris**[2] was signed; while the fallen Emperor retired to the island of Elba.[3]

18. During the later years of the struggle, England had been at war with the **United States** of America. The quarrel grew out of Napoleon's Continental System—a plan for excluding England from the commerce of the Continent of Europe. In 1808, America had replied both to the Berlin Decree and to the Orders in Council, by passing the Non-Intercourse Act, which put an end to the American trade both of England and of France. The right of search for deserters from the navy, claimed by England, aggravated the ill feeling of the Americans. **1808** A.D.

19. In 1811 Napoleon made concessions which led to the repeal of the Non-Intercourse Act in relation to France. But

[1] *Leipsic.*—In Saxony, 60 miles north-west of Dresden.

[2] *Peace of Paris.*—By this treaty the boundaries of France were to be the same as at January 1, 1792. England retained Malta, Tobago, St. Lucia, and the Isle of France (Mauritius).

[3] *Elba.*—In the Mediterranean, off the coast of Italy, between Corsica and Tuscany.

the English Ministry would yield nothing, and war was declared in June 1812. An invasion of Canada by the Americans failed. The English captured Washington, and burned the public buildings. The most striking incident of the war, however, was the ocean duel between the English *Shannon* and

1814 A.D. the American *Chesapeake*, in which the latter, though the larger vessel, was boarded and taken in fifteen minutes. The Treaty of **Ghent** (December 1814) put an end to the war without settling the points in dispute. After peace had been concluded, but before the news of it reached America, the English were repulsed with considerable loss at New Orleans.[1]

20. For his great services in the Peninsula, Wellington was made a Duke, was publicly thanked by the Houses of

1814 A.D. Parliament, and received a grant of £400,000. The allied Sovereigns visited England in June. Towards the close of the year, a Congress met at Vienna to settle the affairs of Europe, which were in great disorder after a war so long and costly.

QUESTIONS.—1. What was the origin of Napoleon's attack on Portugal? How was he enabled to send his troops to the frontier? Who commanded them? What did the Prince-Regent do on Junot's approach?

2. What afforded Napoleon an excuse for interfering in Spain? What occurred in March 1808? How did Napoleon get the principal actors into his power? Whom did he make King? To whom was the crown of Naples given?

3. What led directly to the Peninsular War? What was the real nature of the struggle? What general was sent to Portugal? What victory did he gain? Give the date.

4. What was the Convention of Cintra? Describe the march and retreat of Sir John Moore.

5. In what battle was he slain? When was the battle fought?

6. When was the Battle of Talavera gained by Wellesley? What occasioned his retreat upon the frontiers of Portugal? What reverse was sustained by the Austrians during the year 1809? Where was peace concluded?

7. What was the object of the Walcheren expedition? Under whose command was it placed? What was the result of the expedition?

8. To what famous quarrel did this misfortune lead? How did it end? Who became Premier in 1809?

9. When was the Battle of Busaco fought? Who were the combatants? Where did Wellington take up an impregnable position? By whom was the war in Spain chiefly carried on?

10. By what was London disturbed in 1810? Explain the origin of the riots. How long was Burdett confined in the Tower? What increased the general discontent? What occurred in Ireland?

11. What rendered the Regency necessary? What question had been discussed when the Regency was formerly

[1] *New Orleans.*—On the Mississippi, 94 miles from its mouth; the chief city in the south-western States of the Union.

proposed? What had Pitt's view been? How was the question treated on this occasion? When was the Prince installed?

12. What three important victories marked the fourth campaign in the Peninsula?

13. On what had the long war begun to tell? Who were the Luddites? What was the motive of the rioters? How long did the outbreaks continue?

14. In what year did Wellington's third invasion of Spain take place? What two great fortresses fell before him? What victory opened the way to Madrid? When did Wellington enter the Spanish capital? What was his reason for retreating upon Portugal?

15. What tragic occurrence took place during this year in the lobby of the House of Commons? Who was the new Premier? Who was Foreign Secretary? Who was Chief Secretary for Ireland? What reform did he introduce?

16. What heavy blow had the empire of Napoleon meanwhile received? Describe this disastrous campaign.

17. Where and when was the decisive battle of the Peninsular War fought? How did Wellington enter France? When was the Battle of Toulouse fought? What great battle had been lost by Napoleon six days earlier? What event followed his defeat? What treaty of peace was signed? Whither was the fallen Emperor allowed to retire?

18. What was the origin of the war with the United States?

19. When was war declared? What was the most striking incident in it? What peace terminated the war?

20. How was Wellington rewarded? Who visited England after the peace? What Congress met towards the close of the year? For what purpose?

CHAPTER XIV.

WATERLOO.

1. Napoleon quits Elba.
2. Preparations for the Final Struggle.
3. Quatre Bras and Ligny.
4. Waterloo—Napoleon's Hopes.
5. Position and Strength of the Two Armies.
6. Hougoumont.
7. La Haye Sainte.
8. Arrival of the Prussians—The Old Guard.
9. Final Repulse.
10. The Pursuit.
11. Subsequent Career of Napoleon—His Death.
12. The Second Treaty of Paris.
13. The National Debt.

1. The deliberations of the Vienna Congress were suddenly interrupted in March 1815. News arrived that Napoleon had quitted **Elba.** He landed on the 1st of March on the coast of Provence,[1] and marched rapidly on Paris. His marshals hastened to his side. The French soldiers, disgusted with the government of the Bourbons, flocked in thousands around his banner. In twenty days after his landing, he once more held the capital and the throne of France.

2. All Europe was alarmed and enraged at his daring disre-

[1] *Provence.* — An old province of France, between the mouth of the Rhone and the Alps. It now forms three Departments, and part of a fourth.

gard of treaties and of oaths. The English Parliament voted a budget of £90,000,000 for his overthrow. The Duke of Wellington took the command of 80,000 troops. Blucher marshalled 110,000 Prussians for the campaign. Austria and Russia were preparing to invade France on the eastern frontier with enormous armies. All offers of negotiation from Napoleon were unheeded, and his only hope lay in instant action.

3. Wellington's plan was to join the Prussian army in Belgium, and thence to march rapidly on Paris from the north-east. Napoleon, resolving if possible to prevent this union, crossed the French frontier at Charleroi, on the 15th of June. The English lay then at Brussels; the Prussians were at Ligny,[1] some miles nearer the frontier. Wellington received the news of the French advance on the afternoon of the 15th. In the ball-room of the Duchess of Richmond a hurried whisper passed round among the officers; and at daybreak the English army began to pour out of Brussels toward **Quatre Bras**,[2] an important point twenty miles off, where two roads crossed. There they were attacked on the 16th by Marshal Ney, who strove without success to force the position. But on the same day Napoleon drove the Prussians from *Ligny* in the direction of Wavre, and sent Grouchy in pursuit with 35,000 men, to cut them off from a union with the army of Wellington.

4. This defeat of the Prussians obliged Wellington to fall back on the village of Waterloo.[3] Even there Blucher was distant from him nearly a day's march; and Napoleon exulted in the prospect of victory, for he had got, as he thought, between the allied armies, and all that now remained was to defeat them in turn.

5. The Battle of **Waterloo**—called by the French St. Jean[4]—was fought on a Sunday. All night the rain had fallen in torrents; and when the troops rose from their cheerless bivouac among the crushed and muddy rye, a drizzling rain still fell.

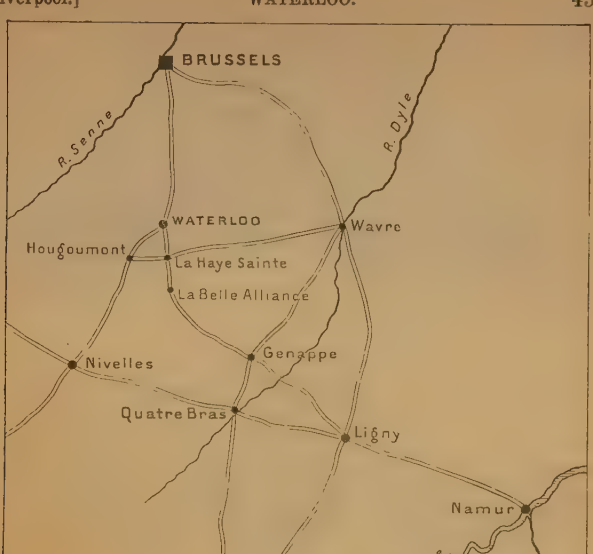
---

[1] *Ligny.*—In Belgium; 14 miles west of Namur, and 25 south-east of Brussels.

[2] *Quatre Bras* (Pron. *Katr Brah*).—Twenty miles south of Brussels, 10 from Waterloo, and 7 north-west of Ligny. The name means *four arms*, and is due to the fact that the road from Brussels to Charleroi there crosses the road from Namur to Nivelles.

[3] *Waterloo.*—About 10 miles south of Brussels.

[4] *St. Jean.*—From Mont St. Jean, a slight eminence in front of Waterloo.



The armies faced each other on two gentle slopes, across which ran the high road to Brussels. The army of Wellington numbered 70,000—that of Napoleon about 80,000 men. Between, in a slight hollow, lay the farm-house La Haye Sainte;[1] and on an angle of the northern slope, serving as a key to the British position, was Hougoumont,[2] an old red-brick chateau: around these buildings the severest fighting took place.

June 18, 1815 A.D.

6. Shortly after eleven o'clock,—when the service in the churches at home was just beginning,—the first shot was fired

[1] *La Haye Sainte* (Pron. *La Hay Saingt*).—South of the village of Waterloo, on the road from Waterloo to Quatre Bras. Opposite to it and on the same road, but within the French lines, was the farm-house of La Belle Alliance. Mont St. Jean was between La Haye Sainte and Waterloo.

[2] *Hougoumont.*—South-west of Waterloo, on the road from Waterloo to Nivelles.—*Chateau* (pron. *shau-toh'*), a French castle; a country mansion.

PLAN OF THE BATTLE-FIELD.

from the English guns. The French artillery replied; and then followed such a cannonade as had never been heard on battle-field before. The French battalions dashed on **Hougoumont,** which was held by the Guards. Round this chateau the battle raged furiously for hours. The French took the wood, broke the gate to pieces, but could not withstand the withering fire from the house, and the rain of shells from English howitzers.[1]

7. Marshal Ney led several columns against **La Haye Sainte,** and gained a temporary lodgment there, because the Germans had used all their ammunition; but their success came too late to be of any use. The circumstance which gave Waterloo a special character, was the trial of strength between the "rocky squares" of English infantry and the torrents of French horse. When the latter had almost spent their strength in frequent charges, nearly the whole of the English cavalry dashed at a sweeping gallop into the hollow, and literally rode over the lancers and cuirassiers, who had been vainly flinging themselves on the squares all day.

8. About four in the afternoon, the head of the **Prussian column** under Bulow began to emerge from the wood to the east. Menacing the right flank of the French position, they obliged Napoleon to risk his last desperate throw for the game,

[1] *Howitzers.*—Short, light cannon, capable of throwing heavy projectiles.

then all but lost. This was the advance of the **Old Guard,** which had been kept in reserve in the rear of the French lines. As far as the foot of the English position Napoleon led these veterans, who had never failed him yet. "There, gentlemen," he said, pointing to the English lines, "*there* is the way to Brussels." He had seen his splendid artillery foiled, his splendid cavalry broken, but he still trusted in the Old Guard.

9. On they went under Ney's command up the face of the ridge near La Haye Sainte. On the top of the ridge the English Guards under Maitland and the brigade of Adams, arranged four deep by Wellington himself, lay on the ground, awaiting the attack. When the French were within fifty yards of the top, the English started to their feet and levelled their muskets. Then there was poured in so fearful a fire, that the columns, hampered on their flanks by other attacks, became mixed in the act of trying to deploy, and were driven in rout down the hill. "They are mixed!" cried the fallen Corsican, as he rode away to the rear.

10. "Let the whole line advance!" was Wellington's final order, as he galloped to the front. Then the great mass, which with patient resolution had stood on the plateau since early morning with scarce a murmur, now swept grandly forward—infantry, horse, and guns in one imposing rush—which carried every French position, and drove the relics of the Grand Army along wreck-strewn roads toward the frontier of France. During the three eventful days (June 16, 17, 18) 40,000 French, 16,000 Prussians, 13,000 British and Germans were killed. We are told that Wellington wept as he rode over the plain by moonlight. But who can tell the thoughts of the fallen despot, as he fled from the field where his mighty sword, stained with the blood and the tears of millions, lay shivered into atoms?

11. Paris, where he abdicated in favour of his son; Rochefort,[1] whence he tried to escape to America; the Roads of Aix,[2] where, on the quarter-deck of the *Bellerophon*, he cast himself on the mercy of England; the lonely rock of **St. Helena,**[3] where

[1] *Rochefort.*—A maritime town on the west coast of France; 7 miles from the mouth of the Charente, and 18 south-east of La Rochelle.

[2] *Roads of Aix.*—Off the island of Aix; 14 miles north-west of Rochefort.

[3] *St. Hele'na.*—An island in the South Atlantic, 1,200 miles from the coast of

for six years he dwelt imprisoned by the Atlantic waves,—these are the last scenes in the history of Napoleon I. He died on the 3rd of May 1821; and in 1840 his remains were removed to France.

12. Before Waterloo was fought—on the 9th of June 1815—the Congress of Vienna had marked on the map of Europe the changed lines which were to follow the fall of Napoleon. This Treaty of Settlement was followed in November (20th) by the Second Treaty of **Paris**, which was signed by Wellington and Castlereagh on the part of England. By these treaties the Empire of France, distended far beyond its natural limits by the ambition of Napoleon, collapsed into a kingdom similar in size to that of 1790.

13. Thus ended a war, during which England had made gigantic efforts. The **National Debt**, which at the end of the Seven Years' War (1763) was £139,000,000, and at the end of the American War (1783) £268,000,000, had now reached the enormous sum of £880,000,000. But fast as the debt grew, still faster grew the wealth of the cotton-mills, where steam-power had come to the aid of the spinning-frame and the hand-loom. Without these it might have been impossible for England to bear the long-continued strain and the heavy burden.

QUESTIONS.—1. What alarming intelligence interrupted the Vienna Congress?

2. What measures were immediately taken by the Allies?

3. What was Wellington's plan? How did Napoleon endeavour to defeat this plan? Where was Wellington when the news of Napoleon's advance reached him? Where were the Prussians? What two battles took place on June 16th?

4. To what place did Wellington retreat? What made this necessary?

5. On what day was the Battle of Waterloo fought? Describe the position and numbers of the two armies. Where did the severest fighting take place?

6. When was the first shot fired? What place did the French battalions attack? How were they repulsed?

7. Who led the attack on La Haye Sainte? What gave him a temporary success? What circumstance gave Waterloo its special character? When did the English cavalry charge?

8. When did the Prussians begin to appear? What did this force Napoleon to do? What did he say as he led the Old Guard forward?

9. Who commanded them? In what attitude did the English Guards await them? When did the English start to their feet? What was the result?

10. What was Wellington's final order? How had the patience of the

---

Africa. Longwood, where Napoleon resided, is in the interior of the island. The house and tomb were purchased by the French Government.

English been tried? How many fell during the three days?

11. What were the last scenes in the history of Napoleon? When did he die?

12. What treaty finally closed the war? When was it signed? How did it affect the French territory?

13. To what sum had the National Debt grown? How was England enabled to bear the burden?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. **1809.**—Russia acquired Finland and Bothnia from Sweden.

2. **1810.**—**Bernadotte,** one of Napoleon's generals, was appointed King of Sweden. Bernadotte afterwards quarrelled with Napoleon, and entered into an alliance with England and Russia. By the Treaty of Kiel[1] in 1814, Norway and Sweden were united as coördinate kingdoms.

3. **1810.**—Chili, Venezuela, and the Argentine Provinces in South America, threw off the Spanish yoke. Peru followed the example in 1820, and a federal republic was established there in 1827.

4. **1811.**—The **Mamelukes** in Egypt (see 1798, p. 440) were slaughtered by Mehemet Ali.

5. **1812.**—The Russians, losing faith in Napoleon's "Continental System" for excluding England from commercial relations with Continental States, declared war against France; and Napoleon undertook his great **Invasion of Russia** with an army of 650,000 men.

6. **1813.**—Napoleon was utterly defeated by the Russians, Prussians, and Austrians, after three days' fighting at **Leipsic.** This was the death-blow to his vast schemes. The Allies entered France, and took Paris. Napoleon abdicated in 1814, and was allowed to retire to the island of Elba. The Congress of Vienna met in 1815, and formed the Germanic Confederation, with the Emperor of Austria as President. Lombardy, Milan, and Venice were annexed to Austria; which also became the protector of Tuscany, Lucca, and the other States of Northern Italy. Sardinia recovered Piedmont and Savoy, which had been annexed to France in 1801. The King of Sicily recovered Naples. While the Congress was sitting, news arrived that Napoleon had returned to France, and was organizing a new army.

7. **1815.**—England assumed the complete sovereignty of the Island of **Ceylon,** which had been ceded to her by the Peace of Amiens in 1802.

QUESTIONS.—1. What territory did Russia acquire in 1809? From whom?—2. Who became King of Sweden in 1810? With whom did he afterwards ally himself? What took place in 1814?—3. What changes were made in the government of the Spanish provinces in South America about this time?—4. When were the Mamelukes massacred?—5. What led to Napoleon's invasion of Russia?—6. What was the death-blow to his vast schemes? Narrate his subsequent career.—7. When did England assume the sovereignty of Ceylon? By what treaty had it been ceded to her?

---

[1] *Kiel.*—A sea-port in Holstein; 53 miles north-east of Hamburg.

CHAPTER XV.

PARLIAMENTARY REFORM.

1. Great Distress in England—The Corn Act.
2. The Agitation for Reform.
3. Excitement in the Country.
4. Peterloo.
5. The Six Acts.
6. The Cato Street Conspiracy.
7. Free Trade and Roman Catholic Emancipation.
8. Queen Caroline.
9. The King's Coronation.
10. Canning Leader of the House of Commons.
11. Commercial Crisis.
12. Canning Premier.
13. Repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts.
14. The Relief Bill Passed.
15. Earl Grey and Reform.
16. The Reform Bill Introduced.
17. The Bill Passed.
18. The Three Great Changes.

1. The Proclamation of Peace was followed by **great distress** in England. When the excitement of the war was over, people had time to consider its consequences, and were forced to feel them. Commerce was almost completely stagnant. The weight of taxation was excessive, owing to the enormous debt which the country had incurred. Food was scarce, and therefore dear. There was little demand for labour, and therefore wages were low. Nevertheless, the Government, in order to favour the English farmers and land-owners, passed a **Corn Act**, forbidding the importation of foreign grain until the price of wheat[1] had reached eighty shillings per quarter. This led to riots in the larger towns, which were attended with great destruction of property, especially of machinery, and in some cases with loss of life. Then arose the cry for a reform of the House of Commons, with universal suffrage and annual Parliaments. Political societies called Hampden Clubs were formed all over the country, that in London being presided over by Sir Francis Burdett. The writings of William Cobbett the journalist, who had begun life as a ploughman, had great influence with the tradesmen and labourers of England, whose champion he proclaimed him-

1815 A.D.

1816.—Algiers (North Africa) was bombarded by Lord Exmouth. The Dey or Governor surrendered, and agreed to set free all Christian slaves, and to seize no more. Algiers was seized by France in 1830.

[1] *Wheat.*—During the past ten years the price of wheat has averaged 50s. per quarter. Its highest price since 1815 was 96s. 11d. in 1817. The maximum of the century was 126s. 6d. in 1812.

self to be. The Ministry, influenced by Lord Castlereagh, stood firm in resisting all change.

2. The agitation thus resumed, which continued during the next seventeen years, had been in progress before the war began. While the war lasted, the public mind was occupied by it to the exclusion of nearly every other subject; but when peace came, the question of reform was reöpened with all the more keenness because of the national distress and the widespread disaffection. Ever since the reign of Queen Anne, the ascendency of the House of Commons had been undoubted; but the complaint was that that House did not represent the nation. The influence of the Crown, of the Ministry for the time being, and of the chief land-owners, was so great that a large proportion of the representation was in their hands. As has been already noticed, the younger Pitt was one of the first to raise the question, but the excesses of the French Revolution led him to abandon reform. The subject was again raised by Sir Francis Burdett in 1810; but it was not till the close of the war that the question really aroused the nation.

3. The price of wheat continued to rise steadily after the peace. It reached its maximum in 1817—a year of gloom and distress. The Prince-Regent was fired at when returning from the opening of Parliament. No fewer than six hundred petitions for reform—some of them with 30,000 signatures—were sent to Parliament. In spite of a Royal Proclamation against rioting and unlawful assemblages, both riots and seditious meetings increased. The *Habeas Corpus* Act was suspended; but the riots still continued, and at Derby three of the ringleaders were executed. In May, Burdett introduced in the House of Commons a motion for reform. It obtained only 77 supporters, while 265 voted for its rejection. Towards the end of the year the death of the Princess Charlotte,[1] only child of the Regent, caused deep national sorrow, and revived for a time the loyalty of the people.

1817 A.D.

4. During the next two years, the excitement and the discontent continued to spread. In 1818 Burdett's resolution for

[1] *Princess Charlotte.* — She was the wife of Prince Leopold, afterwards (1830) King of the Belgians. As only child of George, Prince of Wales, the Prince-Regent, she was heir-apparent to the English throne.

universal suffrage and annual Parliaments obtained only two votes in the House of Commons. A crisis came in
1819 1819. Riots by the unemployed were common in the
A.D. manufacturing towns. Public meetings in favour of Parliamentary Reform were held everywhere. A great meeting held at Smithfield was watched by the military and by 6,000 "special constables." In St. Peter's Field, Manchester, 100,000 persons assembled to petition for reform. They were dispersed by the military, but not until several had been killed and hundreds wounded. The affair was derisively called the Battle of **Peterloo.**

5. For writing a letter condemning the "Manchester massacre," Sir Francis Burdett was fined £2,000, and was imprisoned for three months. Parliament met in November and passed **Six Acts**[1] restricting public liberty. An unusually severe winter added greatly to the sufferings of the poor. In the midst of these troubles the **Princess Victoria,** daughter of the Duke of Kent, fourth son of the King, was born at Kensington Palace (May 24). On the 23rd January following, the Duke of Kent died; and on the 29th the old King,
1820 blind as well as insane, also breathed his last. His age
A.D. was eighty-one, and his reign of sixty years was the longest in the long list of English Sovereigns.

6. *GEORGE IV.*[2]—The Prince-Regent, who had already ruled for nine years, now became King. A few days after his accession, a plot to murder the Ministers, when they were assembled at an official dinner, was discovered by the police. The leader of the conspiracy was **Thistlewood,** a desperate fellow, who had already been a year in jail for challenging Lord Sidmouth, the Home Secretary. After the murder, the prisons were to be broken open, London was to be set on fire, and a Revolution accomplished. On the very evening fixed for the crime, the police came suddenly on the conspirators in a hay-loft in **Cato**

1819.—The first steam voyage was made across the Atlantic by the *Savannah.*

[1] *Six Acts.*—These were—(1) for the more speedy execution of justice; (2) to prevent military training; (3) to punish profane and seditious libels; (4) for seizing arms; (5) for repressing libels; (6) to prevent seditious meetings and assemblies.

[2] *George IV.*—Son of George III. Married Caroline of Brunswick Reigned 10 years.

Street, near the Edgeware Road.[1] A desperate scuffle ensued,—a policeman was killed; but the capture was made. Thistlewood and four others were executed; the rest were transported. A slight rising about the same time at Kilsyth[2] in Stirlingshire was soon suppressed.

7. The depressed state of commerce still caused much anxiety and suffering in the large towns. Mercantile men complained of the legal restrictions to which trade was subjected by such laws as the Corn Act of 1815. Petitions with this burden began to pour into the House of Commons. Thus, side by side with the demand for Parliamentary Reform, there arose the demand for **Free Trade**. A third question which agitated the public mind at the same time was **Roman Catholic Emancipation**. The cause had been taken up by Canning in 1812, and in nearly every session since that year a Relief Bill had been introduced, and had been thrown out by very narrow majorities.

8. Shortly after the King's accession, popular excitement found a new channel, in connection with his attempt to obtain a divorce from his wife, **Caroline** of Brunswick, to whom he had been married in 1795. They had never agreed, and had soon separated. During the Regency she had lived in Italy; but when she heard that her husband was King, she hastened to England to claim the honours due to a Queen. On the 6th of July 1820, a Bill of Pains and Penalties was brought into the House of Lords, charging her with flagrant misconduct. She was ably defended by Brougham and Denman; and on the 10th of November the Bill was abandoned, to the great joy of the people, who were nearly all on her side

1820 A.D.

9. In the following year she went to the door of Westminster Abbey on the day of her husband's **coronation**; but she was refused admittance by the officers in attendance. She sank under this blow, and nineteen days later she died. Even around her coffin, as it was borne

1821 A.D.

[1] *Edgeware Road.*—A great thoroughfare leading from London to Edgeware, a village about 10 miles north-west.

[2] *Kilsyth.*—It is 12½ miles north-east of Glasgow. Kilsyth was the scene of one of Montrose's victories in 1645.

from London to Harwich,[1] there was deadly strife between the soldiers and the people. In the same month in which his wife died the King visited Ireland, where he was received with joy, as the first English King who had paid a visit of peace to the island.

10. Neither the prevailing distress nor the threatening attitude of a large section of the people had any effect on the Government or on Parliament. In February 1822, the Commons rejected a motion, proposed by Brougham, for inquiry into the causes of the national distress. In April it threw out Lord John Russell's motion for Reform. Towards the end of the year, the King spent thirteen days in Scotland. There he received the news that one of his chief ministers, the Marquis of Londonderry—better known as Lord Castlereagh—had committed suicide. He was succeeded as Foreign Secretary by **Mr. Canning**, who then became Leader of the House of Commons. Under his influence the Ministry began to assume a more liberal tone.

1822 A.D.

11. In 1824 a great rage for joint-stock companies seized the nation. Trade had begun to revive. Money was abundant, and men invested it, on the promise of high interest, in schemes of the wildest description. Loans were granted to half the States of the world. Paper money was issued by the banks to an extent far beyond what was prudent. The natural result was a panic or **commercial crisis** in 1825, when sixty banks suspended business, and more than two hundred merchants became insolvent.

12. Lord Liverpool died in April 1827. **Mr. Canning** succeeded him as Premier. Mr. Peel and the Duke of Wellington refused to accept office under Canning, because of his strong advocacy of Roman Catholic Emancipation. That, however, gained him the support of

1827 A.D.

1824.—War was declared against the Burmese, in consequence of outrages on the English settlements in the East, and Rangoon was taken. The province of Aracan was seized in the following year; and in 1826, Aracan and the coasts of Tenasserim were ceded to England by treaty.

1825.—The first railway (Stockton and Darlington) was opened for passenger traffic. The first steam voyage to India was made by the *Enterprise*, Captain Johnson.

[1] *Harwich.*—On the north-eastern point of Essex; 70 miles from London.

Burdett and Brougham in the House of Commons. Worn out by his political labours, Canning died in August, and was succeeded by Viscount **Goderich.**

13. Nothing important occurred during the five months' term of the Goderich Ministry. Internal discord led to its fall in January 1828; and then the **Duke of Wellington** became Premier, with Peel as Home, and Palmerston as War Secretary. In April the **Test and Corporation Acts**[1] of Charles II. were **repealed,** on the motion of Lord John Russell, although the measure was opposed both by Peel and by Palmerston. This was the first triumph of the party of progress.[2] **1828** A.D.

14. The result greatly encouraged the advocates of the Roman Catholic claims. An incident which occurred this year brought that question to a crisis. In consequence of changes in the Ministry, several seats in the House of Commons became vacant. One of these was for Clare county. Daniel O'Connell, the great champion of Emancipation, and himself a Roman Catholic, was elected. Government saw plainly that his exclusion from the House would inevitably be followed by a rebellion in Ireland. Wellington and Peel therefore withdrew their opposition, and actually carried through Parliament the **Roman Catholic Relief Bill.** Peel's change of side caused surprise and indignation in the High Church party, whose champion he had formerly been. His plea was, that the peace of the country was in danger. This was a second triumph to the popular party. On the 26th June 1830, George IV. died, aged 68.[3] He was succeeded by his brother William, Duke of Clarence. **1829** A.D.

1827.—The Turkish and Egyptian fleets were destroyed by the combined fleets of England, France, and Russia, under Admiral Codrington, at Navarino (south-west of Morea).

---

[1] *The Test and Corporation Acts.*—The Test Act (1673) required military officers to be members of the English Church. The Corporation Act (1661) required the same of officers in corporations.

[2] The insertion, in the new Declaration prescribed by the Act, of the words, "On the true faith of a Christian," had the unintentional effect of excluding Jews from Parliament till 1858.

[3] During the reign of George IV., Captains Parry and Ross explored the Arctic Seas in search of a North-West Passage. The London University, chartered in 1826, began its operations in 1828.

15. *WILLIAM IV.*[1]—The revolutions of 1830 in France and Belgium caused much excitement and discontent in Great Britain, and gave a new impetus to the agitation for a reform of the House of Commons. The new Parliament, which
1830 met in October, contained a large proportion of Liberal
A.D. members. The Duke of Wellington, who was opposed to any change, then resigned, and a Whig Ministry was formed, of which the chief members were **Earl Grey** and Lord John Russell. Brougham was Lord Chancellor, and Lords Melbourne and Palmerston were Secretaries of State.

16. On the 1st of March 1831, Lord John Russell introduced the **Reform Bill** in the House of Commons. The first reading was carried by a majority of one; but as Government
1831 had not a sufficient majority to carry the Bill through
A.D. all its stages, Parliament was dissolved. The excitement in the country was extraordinary. Great riots took place during the elections. The new Parliament contained a large majority of reformers, and the Bill was easily carried in the Commons. But the Lords threw it out on the second reading.

17. Lord John Russell brought in a third Bill before the close of the year (December 12). This Bill was passed by the Commons; but the opposition in the Lords grew so strong that Earl Grey proposed a creation of Liberal peers. The King objected, and Grey resigned. The Duke of Wellington was again called on to form a Ministry; but this he failed to do. The current of public feeling turned fiercely against him; and the vic-
1832 tor of Waterloo was obliged to barricade his house
A.D. against a London mob! Earl Grey was then restored, and, as about one hundred Tory peers absented themselves from the division, the Bill became law (June 7). The Reform Bills of Scotland and Ireland received the royal assent on the 17th of July, and on the 7th of August.

1830.—The Liverpool and Manchester Railway, the first locomotive line in the world, was completed and opened.

1831.—Asiatic cholera broke out at Sunderland. Its ravages continued for nearly a year, sweeping off 60,000 persons.

---

[1] *William IV.*—Third son of George III. Married Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen. Reigned 7 years. His two daughters died in infancy.

18. Three great changes were thus made: (1.) The right of sending members to Parliament was taken away from many places—called pocket or rotten boroughs—in which there were very few voters, and sometimes none residing in the borough. Of this class the most notorious example was Old Sarum,[1] in which there was not a single house! (2.) Several towns, such as Birmingham, Leeds, Manchester, and Sheffield, which had grown within the last century into first-class cities, now for the first time received the right of sending members to Parliament. (3.) The franchise, or right of voting, was extended more widely among the middle classes. In towns, the right of voting was given to owners, and to tenants, of houses worth £10 a year and upwards. In counties, all were entitled to vote who owned property worth £10 a year, or who paid a yearly rent of at least £50 for their holdings. These changes established the principle that the House of Commons is the People's House of Parliament, and that it should be made to represent all classes and interests in the country.

QUESTIONS.—1. By what was the peace followed in England? What were the causes of the distress? What Act did the Government pass in 1815? To what did this lead? What cry then arose? Who was the champion of the working-classes? What was the attitude of the Government?

2. When had the agitation begun? What effect had the war on it? What complaint was made regarding the House of Commons? Who had been one of the first to raise the question? Who revived it?

3. When was the price of wheat at its highest? What alarming incidents occurred that year? How many votes did Burdett's motion for Reform obtain? Who died towards the end of the year?

4. In what year did the crisis come? Where were great meetings held? Describe the affair of "Peterloo."

5. For what was Burdett punished? Who was born in the midst of these troubles? When did her father die? When did George III. die?

6. Who succeeded to the throne? What conspiracy was discovered a few days after his accession? Who was its leader? Where was the seizure made? What was the fate of the conspirators? What rising took place at the same time in Scotland?

7. What two questions occupied the public mind besides that of Parliamentary Reform? Which of them had Canning taken up?

8. How did George IV. act towards his wife? Where had she lived during the Regency? When did she return to England? What steps were taken against her? Who defended her? What was the result?

9. What did the Queen do on the day of the King's coronation? What followed? When did her death occur?

[1] *Old Sarum.*—In Wiltshire; 2 miles north of Salisbury. A few traces of walls and ramparts, and of its castle and cathedral, are all that remain to represent the ancient city. New Sarum is Salisbury, to which the inhabitants began to migrate in the time of Richard I. The old town, we are told, had become wholly deserted in the time of Henry VII.

What took place at her funeral? How was King George received in Ireland?

10. What motions were proposed by Brougham and Russell in 1822? How were they treated? What Minister died in 1822? Who succeeded him? What effect had his influence?

11. What rage seized the nation in 1824? Of what imprudence were the banks guilty? What was the consequence?

12. When did Lord Liverpool die? Who succeeded him as Premier? Who refused to take office under him? Why? Who supported him? When did Canning die? Who succeeded him?

13. How long did the Goderich Ministry last? Who then became Premier? What Acts were repealed in 1828?

14. What incident brought the question of Roman Catholic Emancipation to a crisis? What induced Wellington and Peel to withdraw their opposition? How did Peel defend his conduct? When did George IV. die? Who succeeded him?

15. Where did revolutions take place in 1830? What effect had they in Great Britain? What led Wellington to resign? Who was next Premier?

16. When was the Reform Bill introduced? By whom? By what majority was the first reading carried? Why was Parliament dissolved? What took place during the elections? What was the character of the new Parliament? Where was the Bill thrown out?

17. How did Earl Grey propose to overcome the opposition in the House of Lords? What followed? Who was called on to form a Ministry? What was the result? What was the feeling of the lower classes towards him? Who was recalled to the Ministry? When did the Reform Bill become law?

18. What three great changes were made by the passing of the Reform Bills? What principle was established?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. **1820.**—A revolution broke out in Spain. The free constitution of 1812 was revived, and sworn to by Ferdinand VII., who had been restored in 1814. But the French sent Ferdinand help, and a despotic government was reëstablished. On the death of Ferdinand in 1833, his daughter, Isabella II., succeeded. Her uncle, Don Carlos, claimed the throne in 1836, and war raged for several years; but at last Isabella, with English aid, secured the throne in 1843. (See 1870, p. 516.)

2. **1821.**—The Cortes (or National Assembly) of Portugal proclaimed the sovereignty of the people and the liberty of the press, and obliged King John VI. to return from Brazil. On his death in 1826, his son, Pedro IV., preferred the throne of Brazil, which had been declared an independent empire in 1822, and proclaimed his daughter Maria (aged 7) Queen of Portugal. She was opposed by her uncle, Dom Miguel, who held the throne till 1833, when he was overthrown by Dom Pedro, with the assistance of the English. Maria was succeeded by her son, Pedro V., in 1853; and he by his brother, Louis I., in 1861.

3. **1826.**—After much slaughter, the order of **Janissaries**[1] was completely abolished by Mahmoud II.

---

[1] *Janissaries.*—The Janissaries were originally a body-guard of the Sultans of Turkey. They were young Christian slaves trained as Mohammedans. After-

4. **1827.** — The Turkish fleet was destroyed at **Navarino** by the combined fleets of England, France, and Russia. Otho of Bavaria was made King of Greece in 1832. On his abdication in 1863 he was succeeded by Prince George of Denmark as George I.

5. **1829.** — The Peace of **Adrianople,**[1] closing a short war between Russia and Turkey, gave the former the stronghold of Kars (in Asia Minor), and secured an independent administration for Moldavia and Wallachia. (See 1774, p. 415.)

6. **1830.** — A **Second Revolution in France** expelled Charles X. Louis-Philippe, Duke of Orleans,[2] was elected "King of the French." Charles had begun to reign in 1824, and soon showed a disposition to rule with absolute power. The people rose against him. About the same time the French suppressed the Algerine pirates, and Algiers (in Africa) became a French colony.

7. **1830.** — The **Belgians,** being mostly Roman Catholics, revolted from the Netherlands, and established their independence. Belgium then became a separate kingdom, with a free constitution, under Leopold[3] of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, who reigned till his death in 1865, when he was succeeded by his son, Leopold II.

8. **1832.** — The kingdom of Poland was at last abolished, and what remained of its territory was swallowed up in Russia. (See 1795, p. 440.) A revolt began in 1830, in which the Poles were at first successful; but they were at last overwhelmed by superior numbers. Another futile attempt to throw off the Russian yoke was made under Langiewicz in 1862.

QUESTIONS. — 1. What occurred in Spain in 1820? How was despotism reestablished? Who succeeded Ferdinand? Who contested the throne with her? With what result? — 2. What occurred in Portugal in 1821? Who was called to the throne? What took place on his death? Who contested the throne with her? When was he overthrown? Who succeeded Maria? Who succeeded Pedro V.? — 3. When were the Janissaries put down? By whom? What were they originally? What afterwards? When were they very powerful? — 4. When was the Battle of Navarino fought? With what result? Who was made King of Greece in 1832? Who, in 1863? — 5. What peace was concluded in 1829? Between whom? What did Russia acquire by it? What Turkish provinces secured an independent administration? — 6.

---

wards they became a body of infantry. In the seventeenth century they acquired extraordinary power. On several occasions they deposed Sultans, and even put them to death. Their career resembles that of the Streltzi in Russia and of the Mamelukes in Egypt. (See Part I., p. 148.)

[1] *Adrianople.* — A city of European Turkey; 137 miles north-west of Constantinople. It is named after the Roman Emperor Hadrian, by whom it was founded early in the second century A.D.

[2] *Duke of Orleans.* — He was fifth in descent from Philip, Duke of Orleans, brother of Louis XIV. Charles X. represented the direct Bourbon line, being fourth in descent from Louis XIV. himself. The two lines are now distinguished as Orleanists and Legitimists.

[3] *Leopold.* — His sister was Duchess of Kent, and mother of Queen Victoria.

When did the Second French Revolution occur? Who was then chosen King? Why was Charles X. expelled? What colony did the French form about the same time?—7. When did Belgium become a separate kingdom? Who was chosen King? When did he die? Who succeeded him?—8. What was the end of the kingdom of Poland? What led to its abolition? When was the latest attempt to regain independence made by the Poles?

CHAPTER XVI.

FINANCIAL REFORM.

1. Emancipation of Slaves in the Colonies.
2. The New Poor Law.
3. Trade Unions and Strikes.
4. The Municipal Reform Act.
5. Accession of Victoria.
6. Rebellion in the Canadas.
7. Union of the Canadas.
8. The Anti-corn-law League.
9. The Chartists.
10. War in Afghanistan.
11. The Khyber Pass.
12. Peel Premier.
13. The Income Tax.
14. The New Tariff.
15. Repeal Agitation in Ireland.
16. The Conquest of Sindh.
17. The First Sikh War.
18. Peace of Lahore.
19. The Potato Blight in Ireland.
20. Repeal of the Corn Laws.
21. Resignation of Peel.

1. The first Reformed House of Commons met in February 1833. The first question which occupied its attention was the **Emancipation of the Slaves** in the English Colonies. Ever since 1788 a movement had been going on in the country and in Parliament with that view. **William Wilberforce,** member for the county of York, first brought forward the motion in the House of Commons; and through a long life he clung with noble perseverance to the work. From time to time the debates were renewed, amid great opposition from slave-holders, planters, and merchants. The slave-trade had been abolished in 1807, on the motion of Mr. Fox; but it was not until **1833** the question was forty-five years old that slavery itself A.D. was abolished. £20,000,000 was granted to slave-owners as compensation: and the slaves were not set free at once, but were bound to serve their masters as apprentices for five years longer. In 1838 eight hundred thousand slaves received their freedom. Wilberforce lived only long enough to see the triumph of his life's work. He died in 1833.

2. A difference in the Cabinet on an Irish question led to its reconstruction in 1834. Earl Grey retired and **Viscount Melbourne** became Premier. The chief work of this Ministry

was a new **Poor Law.** The rate to support the poor had risen to £8,000,000 a year; and a great part of the sum was squandered on the support of strong men and women, who were too idle to work. The new Bill placed the local boards under the superintendence of a Government department called the Poor Law Board,[1] and ordered that no aid should be given to able-bodied paupers, unless they chose to go to the poor-houses, and work for their living there. **1834** A.D.

3. The same year is memorable as the first in which trade **Strikes** occurred on a serious scale. Laws regulating the price of labour, and prohibiting workmen from combining for their own protection, were common from the time of Edward III., when two Statutes of Labourers[2] were passed. All the laws against combination were repealed in 1825. Thereafter **Trade Unions**[3] became common, and frequently led to disturbances in the manufacturing towns. In 1834 the tailors of London struck work for increase of wages; and their example was followed by the weavers of Leeds and the calico-printers of Glasgow. In each case the loss of wages led to great suffering.

4. Signs of a Tory reäction now became perceptible. These were welcomed by the King, who was alarmed by the progress of the reforming spirit. When the Chancellor of the Exchequer resigned in 1835, owing to his transference to the House of Lords, the King seized the occasion to dismiss the Melbourne Cabinet and to place Sir Robert Peel at the head of the Government. Peel immediately appealed to the country;[4] but although his supporters were increased, he failed to obtain a majority, and resigned, having held office only four months. Lord Melbourne and most of his old associates then returned to power (April). The chief measure of the session was the **Municipal Reform Act,** by which the Town Councils of England and Wales were reformed. To the ratepayers and freemen was given the right of appoint- **1835** A.D.

[1] *Poor Law Board.*—In 1871 the Poor Law Board was made a department of the Local Government Board, the President of which is a member of the Administration for the time being.

[2] *Statutes of Labourers.*—See Part I., p. 146.

[3] *Trade Unions.*—Acts regulating the proceedings of these societies were passed in 1868, 1871, and 1875.

[4] *Appealed to the country.*—Dissolved Parliament, in order to give the constituencies an opportunity of electing new members.

ing the councillors, who elected the magistrates from among themselves. Similar changes were afterwards made in Scotland and Ireland. The King died on the 20th of June 1837, aged seventy-two. He left no children.

5. *VICTORIA.*[1]—The young Queen had just completed her eighteenth year. From early life her education had been carefully watched and directed by her mother, the Duchess of Kent, in prospect of the high sphere which she was one day likely to fill. The change of Sovereign strengthened the Ministry. Instead of having the influence of the Crown against him, as in the late reign, the young Queen was now dependent on the Premier for guidance and advice in constitutional matters.

1837 A.D.

6. One of the earliest events of the new reign was a **rebellion in the Canadas** (December). Ever since their foundation, an oligarchical system of government had prevailed in the North American provinces. For years the Colonists had been demanding free institutions and responsible government. For years the French in Lower Canada had been crying out against English exclusiveness and English tyranny. The triumph of Reform in England inspired the malcontents with hope. The Government, however, was stubborn when it ought to have been conciliatory. Its conduct drove the reformers in the Assembly of Lower Canada to withhold the supplies till grievances should be redressed. This deprived Government officials of their salaries, and caused much distress. Thereupon the English Parliament empowered the Governor-General to appropriate a large sum out of the treasury. The extreme reformers in the two Canadas then coälesced and rebellion followed.

7. The rebellion was short-lived. There was little actual fighting and little loss of life. Before the end of December, the leaders either had fled or had been lodged in jail. A second rising, in Lower Canada, in the following year was as speedily put down. These events, however, convinced the English Par-

[1] *Victoria.* — Alexandrina-Victoria, daughter of Edward, Duke of Kent, fourth son of George III. Married Albert, Prince of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. Since the Salic Law permits no woman to wear the crown of Hanover, by the accession of Victoria that State was severed from the British dominions; and Ernest, Duke of Cumberland, and brother of William IV., became its King. It was annexed to Prussia in 1866.

liament of the necessity of making concessions. To strengthen the Government of the colony, a **Union Act** was passed in 1840, by which the two Canadas were made one province. In 1848 responsible government was established not only in Canada, but also in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick.

8. There were loud complaints in England at this time of the hardships suffered by the mass of the population in consequence of the laws restricting the importation of corn. The Corn Act of 1815 had been superseded in 1828 by the Sliding-Scale[1] Act, which reduced the duty on imported corn in proportion as the price of home-grown corn increased; but practically the duty was still prohibitory. The movement by which these laws were at last repealed had its origin in 1838.

Then was formed the famous **Anti-corn-law League,** **1838** with Richard Cobden and John Bright as its leaders. A.D. There followed a great agitation all over the country. The Free-traders maintained that the "daily bread" of the people was the last article that should be taxed. Those who lived by agriculture wished to keep foreign grain out of the country. But to buy in the cheapest markets of the world was the policy advocated by the Free-traders.

9. About this time the proceedings of a society of men who called themselves **Chartists** began to attract notice. They took their name from "The People's Charter," a document in which they demanded six sweeping changes in the Constitution:—(1.) Universal Suffrage—that every man should have a vote. (2.) Vote by ballot. (3.) Annual Parlia- **1838** ments. (4.) That Members of Parliament should be A.D. paid. (5.) That every man, whether owning property or not, should be eligible for a seat in Parliament. (6.) That the country should be divided into electoral districts.—A band of these discontented men, headed by John Frost, who had once been a magistrate, raised a serious disturbance at Newport, which was attended with loss of life. For this, Frost and two others were sentenced to death; but they were afterwards reprieved, and transported for life.

[1] *Sliding-Scale.*—The duty was £1, 5s. 8d. when the average price of English wheat was under 62s. a quarter. For every shilling added to the price of wheat, one shilling was taken off the duty.

10. From 1839 to 1842 a war raged in **Afghanistan.** The suspicion that Russia had evil designs on India made it of the highest importance that a prince friendly to England

should sit on the throne of Afghanistan; for that State lies between India and Persia, and Persia has always been friendly to the Czars. Accordingly, early in 1839 an English army,

1840.—An English fleet stormed Acre (Syria), and forced the Pasha of Egypt to withdraw his troops from Syria. England interfered because the war between Turkey and Egypt had interrupted the Black Sea trade.

1840.—War was declared against China. The war originated in an edict of the Chinese authorities forbidding the importation of opium, the use of which is very injurious to the natives. The edict was resisted in the interest of English merchants. Peace was concluded in 1842. England gained Hong-kong, and the right to trade with Canton and four other ports, besides an indemnity of four million sterling.

under Sir John Keane, entered Afghanistan to replace Shah Shoojah on the throne, which had been usurped by Dost Mohammed. Within a few months the great cities of Candahar, Ghuznee, and Cabool were taken, and Shah Shoojah was enthroned. But the victors were surrounded at Cabool by a host of Afghans under Akbar Khan, the son of Dost Mohammed.

11. Sir William Macnaghten and many officers, having been invited to a conference, were basely murdered; and the remnant of the army, leaving Cabool and marching through the snow to Jelalabad, a distance of ninety miles, was slaughtered on the road, only a few escaping out of many hundreds. Shah Shoojah soon fell by an assassin's hand. But General Pollock, having fought his way nobly through the **Khyber Pass,**[1] joined Sir Robert Sale and General Nott, and then marched on Cabool, on which the English flag was planted once more. The fortifications of the city were soon destroyed, and the English then withdrew from Afghanistan. In 1855 Dost Mohammed made a friendly alliance with England.

Sept. 15, 1842 A.D.

12. Lord Melbourne had resigned in 1839, on finding that his majority in the House of Commons had become very small. Sir Robert Peel, however, declined to take office, as the Queen objected to the removal of the ladies of her bed-chamber, and Lord Melbourne returned to power. In 1841 Peel carried a vote of want of confidence in the Ministry. Parliament was dissolved, and in the new House of Commons the Conservatives,[2] as the Tories had come to be called since 1830, had a majority of 80. Melbourne at once resigned, and **Sir Robert Peel** again became Premier.

1841 A.D.

13. The first question to which Peel turned his attention was the modification of the Corn Laws. In 1842 he carried the **Second Sliding-Scale**[3] **Act,** by which the duty ranged from one pound to one shilling, as the price of

1842 A.D.

[1] *Khyber Pass.*—The chief northern pass between Hindustan and Afghanistan. It begins about 10 miles west of Peshawur, and extends 30 miles, between lofty cliffs, from 600 to 1,000 feet high. For Cabool, and the other places mentioned in connection with the Afghan War, see the *Map.*

[2] *Conservatives.*—So called because they profess to *conserve* the constitution from change.

[3] *Sliding-Scale.*—See Note, p. 471

wheat rose from 51s. to 73s. per quarter. This, however, did not satisfy the free-traders, and the agitation continued to gather strength. For some years the national expenditure had been in excess of the income. To meet the growing deficiency Peel proposed and carried an **Income Tax** of sevenpence per pound. This, he estimated, would not only make up the deficiency, but also leave a surplus. This surplus he proposed to devote to the reduction of customs duties on imported articles.

14. With this view he introduced a **New Tariff**, in which the duty on the raw materials used in manufactures was reduced to a merely nominal amount, and the duty on manufactured articles was such as to enable the foreign producer to compete fairly with the home manufacturer. Peel's proposals alarmed some of his supporters, but they were heartily supported by many of his political opponents, who saw in them a recognition of free-trade principles; and they were carried by large majorities. This was the beginning of a new financial policy, which has greatly extended the commerce of the country, and has afforded new openings for domestic industry. At the same time, Peel objected to reduce the tax on corn, on the ground that he was unwilling to alarm the agricultural party.

15. In the following year the agitation in Ireland for the **Repeal of the Union** reached its crisis. The collection known as the Repeal Rent, which was made at the doors of the Roman Catholic chapels in aid of O'Connell, amounted in 1843 to £48,000. Monster meetings were held at Tara,[1] the site of the ancient Irish capital, and other places. Clontarf,[2] the scene of Brian Boru's victory over the Danes, was chosen as a fit place for one of these; but the Lord-Lieutenant sent soldiers to occupy the ground. O'Connell[3] and

1843 A.D.

[1] *Tara.*—A hill in county Meath; 25 miles north-west of Dublin. It has been immortalized by Moore, in one of his *Irish Melodies:*—

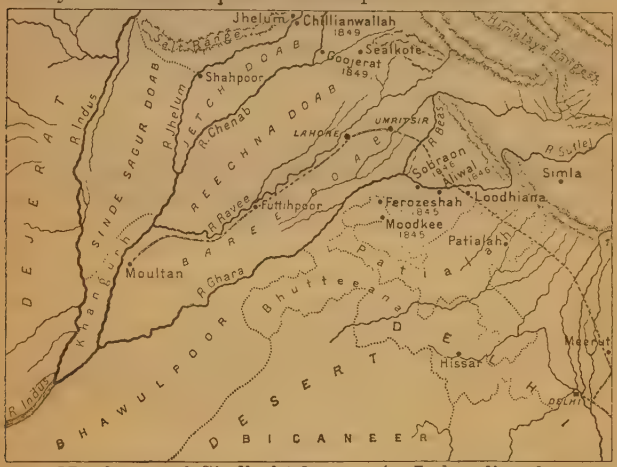
"The harp that once thro' Tara's halls
The soul of music shed,
Now hangs as mute on Tara's walls
As if that soul were fled."

[2] *Clontarf.*—A town 3 miles north-east of Dublin, on the northern shore of Dublin Bay. Brian Boru was King of Munster, and the deliverer of Ireland from the Danes in the end of the tenth century. In 1014, the King of Leinster treacherously recalled them Brian defeated them at Clontarf; but some fugitives slew him in his tent while he was thanking God for victory.

[3] *O'Connell.*—His influence declined after this. He died at Genoa in 1847

nine others were then brought to trial, and sentenced to imprisonment for a year; but they were soon released.

16. War had, in the meantime, broken out again in India. During the Afghan War, **Sindh**—a district of 50,000 square miles, with a sea-coast of 150 miles, lying around the mouths of the Indus—was occupied by English troops. The *Ameers* or rulers of Sindh objected to this, and an attack was made on the English Residency at Hyderabad. Major Outram, who had only 100 men, retreating skilfully after a gallant defence, joined the main army under Sir Charles Napier. A few days later the English won the Battle of Meeanee;[1] and a second victory at Dubba completed the conquest of Sindh.



17. North-east of Sindh, higher up the Indus, lies the great district of the Punjab, which derives its name from Persian

1843.—The Rebecca Riots against toll-bars disturbed Wales. Every turnpike in South Wales was destroyed.

1843.—A disruption in the Church of Scotland led to the formation of the Free Church. The intrusion of unacceptable ministers under the Patronage Act of 1712 was the grievance in which the conflict originated; but the question ultimately involved was held to be the jurisdiction claimed by the Civil Courts over the Church in matters spiritual. Those who denied this jurisdiction left the Establishment, and formed the Free Church.

[1] *Meeanee.* — In Sindh; 6 miles north of Hyderabad. (See *Map*, p. 472). *Dubba* is also in the neighbourhood of Hyderabad.

words meaning "five waters."[1] The country was then held by the **Sikhs**—the Highlanders of India—who had seized it in the middle of last century. One of their princes, Runjeet Singh, had been a firm friend to the English; but his death in 1839 caused a bloody strife for the throne, during which an unprovoked attack was made on an English force stationed at Moodkee.[2] The Sikhs were repulsed with loss; but they were no mean foes,—they had fine horses, and their gunners were drilled by European officers of artillery.

Dec. 18, **1845** A.D.

18. The English army, under Sir Hugh Gough and Sir Henry Hardinge, then moved on the Sikh camp at *Ferozeshah*, and took it after two days' hard fighting. The Sikhs fled across the Sutlej. The victories of *Aliwal* on the 26th of January 1846, and **Sobraon** a fortnight later, opened the path of the English soldiers to Lahore, the capital of the Punjab, where a treaty was signed.

1846 A.D.

19. In 1845 a blight fell on the **potato crop**, which caused sore famine and fever in Ireland during the ensuing winter. Generous aid was sent from England and from America; but partly by death and partly by emigration, the population was lessened by nearly two million. These events gave a new impetus to the agitation for the repeal of the Corn Laws. Sir Robert Peel had entered office in 1841 as a pledged upholder of the Corn Laws. The success, however, of his New Tariff of 1842 had led him to modify his views on that subject very considerably. The Irish famine of 1845 completed his conversion to Free Trade principles. In the end of that year he resigned in order to give those who had advocated these principles an opportunity of introducing a measure.

20. Lord John Russell attempted to form a Ministry, but failed. Sir Robert Peel then resumed office; and in January 1846 he introduced a measure for the **Repeal of the Corn Laws**, which became law in June. The duty on imported corn was reduced at once to four shillings per quarter; and after 1849 it was to be reduced to the nominal rate of one shilling

[1] *Five waters.*—It is watered by five rivers — namely, the Indus, and its tributaries, the Jhelum, the Chenab, the Ravee, and the Sutlej.

[2] *Moodkee.*—A village 65 miles south-east of Lahore. For this, and other places of importance in the Sikh War, see the *Map*.

per quarter. Peel's change of side for the second time alienated from him many of his supporters. These were for a time known as the **Protectionist** party, under the leadership of Lord Stanley, afterwards Earl of Derby.

21. On the very day on which the Lords passed the Repeal Act, the Ministry was defeated on an Irish question by a combination of the Whigs and the Protectionists. Peel at once resigned; and **Lord John Russell** became Premier, and continued in office during the next six years. Till his death[1] in 1850, Peel gave an independent support to the Whig Ministers in furthering the Free Trade policy which he had inaugurated.

QUESTIONS.—1. When did the first Reformed House of Commons meet? What was the first question which occupied it? When had the movement begun? Who was its chief apostle? What was done in 1807? When was slavery abolished? How much did Emancipation cost the country? How many slaves were emancipated? When?

2. Who became Premier in 1834? What was the chief work of his Ministry? What were the chief features of that Bill?

3. For what is the year 1834 also memorable? When did Labour Laws become common? When were these laws repealed? What became common thereafter?

4. What led the King to dismiss the Melbourne Cabinet? What occasion did he seize for the purpose? What led to the return of Lord Melbourne to power? What was the chief measure of the session of 1835? When did King William die?

5. Who succeeded to the throne? How old was she? What effect had the change of Sovereign on the Ministry?

6. When did the Canadian rebellion take place? What were the demands of the Colonists? What specific act led to the rebellion?

7. What was the issue of the rising? What Act was passed in 1840? What was done in 1848?

8. What laws in England gave rise to loud complaints? What League was formed to secure their removal? When? Who were its leaders? What did the Free-traders maintain? Who defended the Corn Laws? What was their object?

9. Who were the Chartists? What were the six changes demanded? Where did an outbreak take place?

10. What war raged from 1839 to 1842? What was its origin? What did Sir John Keane effect?

11. What calamities overtook the English army? Who retook Cabool? When? What occurred in 1855?

12. What prevented Peel from taking office in 1839? When did he become Premier?

13. To what subject did he first turn his attention? What Act was passed in 1842? Why did he introduce the Income-Tax? What did he propose to do with the surplus?

14. What were the chief proposals in Peel's New Tariff? Who supported them? What has been the effect of the change of policy?

15. When did the Repeal agitation in Ireland reach its height? To what did the Rent amount in 1843? Where was a monster meeting prevented by Government? Who were seized and punished?

16. Describe the circumstances which

[1] *Death of Peel.*—On June 29, 1850, he was thrown from his horse when riding in London, and his collar-bone was broken. He died on July 2.

led to the conquest of Sindh. Who were the *Ameers?* What victories completed the conquest?

17. Describe the Punjab. Who were its inhabitants? What outrage did they commit? What victory did the English gain in 1845?

18. What battles were fought in 1846? With what result?

19. What calamity befell Ireland in 1845? What agitation did it encourage? What had led Peel to modify his views on that subject? What completed his conversion?

20. When were the Corn Laws repealed? Who introduced the measure? What party did the Conservatives who opposed Peel form? Who was their leader?

21. What led to Peel's overthrow? Who succeeded him? How did Peel act during the rest of his life?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. **1835.**—The **Zollverein** (Customs' Union), establishing freedom of trade among the different German States, was confirmed by treaty. It began with Prussia and a few other States in 1818, and was gradually joined by all the leading German States except Austria.

2. **1836.**—Prince **Louis Napoleon** (nephew of Napoleon I.) attempted to raise an insurrection at Strasbourg, but failed, and was allowed to go to America. He made a second attempt at Boulogne[1] in 1840. This time he was arrested, and imprisoned "for life" in the Castle of Ham;[2] but he made his escape to England in 1846. (See 1848, p. 493; and 1870, p. 516.)

3. **1841.**—The Pashalic of Egypt was made hereditary in the family of **Mehemet Ali.** This was the result of quarrels between Turkey and Egypt, which began in 1832, and led to a war, in which England and other Great Powers took part, in 1839. Ismail, the grandson of Mehemet Ali, who succeeded in 1863, was pronounced Khedive (Sovereign) by the Sultan in 1867; and the title, with hereditary succession, was confirmed by firman (edict) in 1872.

4. **1845.—Texas** was incorporated with the United States of America. It had revolted from Mexico in 1835, and its independence was acknowledged in 1840. Its annexation by the States led to a war with Mexico, in which the States were victorious, and gained California, Utah, and New Mexico.

QUESTIONS.—1. What is the Zollverein? When was it confirmed by treaty? When and with what State did it begin? How far did it extend?—2. Where was an insurrection attempted in 1836? By whom? What was the result? Where and when did he make a second attempt? What was the issue this time? When did he make his escape? Where did he go?—3. When did quarrels begin between the Sultan and Egypt? What was their result? What change in the title of the Pasha was made in 1863?—4. What addition was made to the United States in 1845? By what changes was this step preceded? To what did the annexation lead? What did the States gain by the war?

---

[1] *Boulogne.*—On the north-west coast of France; 22 miles from Calais.

[2] *Ham.*—A fortress 60 miles north-east of Paris.

CHAPTER XVII.

COLONIAL PROGRESS.

1. Responsible Government established in Canada.
2. Earl Grey's Despatch.
3. The Third Revolution in France.
4. The Young Ireland Party.
5. The Second Sikh War.
6. The First Great Exhibition.
7. The Australian Colonies.
8. The First Derby Ministry.
9. The Second Burmese War.
10. Death of Wellington.
11. The Aberdeen Ministry.

1. The principle of **Responsible government,** for which the reformers in the North American provinces had been struggling so long and so determinedly, was fairly established in 1847, not only in Canada, but also in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. Lord John Russell's despatch on Tenure of Office in 1839, when he was Colonial Secretary, had prepared the way for this. It had intimated that members of the Executive Council and the chief officials were no longer to consider themselves as appointed practically for life, but as holding office during the pleasure of the Crown or of its representative.

2. It was appropriately reserved for the Ministry of Lord John Russell to complete the work. In 1847, **Earl Grey,** as Colonial Secretary, wrote a despatch in which the rule was distinctly laid down that those who directed the policy of a province should hold office only as long as they had the confidence of the majority of the representative branch. The rule was first put in practice in 1848, and it has been acted on ever since. The beneficial results were soon felt. Discontent was allayed ; the energies of the country were turned into more useful channels than that of political agitation. The history of Canada since 1848 has been a history of steady and, in some respects, unexampled progress in industry, in commerce, in intelligence, and in the development of free institutions. **1847** A.D.

3. The year 1848 was stormy over all Europe. In France there was a **third Revolution.** There were tumults at Vienna, Berlin, and Rome. There were Chartist riots in England, and a great meeting assembled on the 10th of April on Kennington Common,[1] to escort Feargus O'Con- **1848** A.D.

[1] *Kennington Common.* — An open tract of ground beside Kennington, a suburb of London. It is about 2 miles south-west of St. Paul's Cathedral.

nor to Parliament with a petition embodying their demands. But the streets were filled with 200,000 sturdy citizens, sworn in as special constables, and the astonished Chartists slunk quietly through the day's programme.

4. In Ireland, the more violent members of the Repeal Society, headed by William Smith O'Brien, had formed themselves into **the Young Ireland Party**, and were bent on war. Rebellious newspapers—of which the cleverest and most violent was the *United Irishman*, edited by John Mitchell—excited the people to arms. Groups of workmen might have been seen every day at ball-practice on the sands and in the fields. But all ended in nothing. A feeble rising under O'Brien and others took place in Tipperary; but it was suppressed by a few policemen. The leaders were soon taken. Four of them were condemned to death; but the sentence was afterwards changed to exile. They were ultimately released one by one, or allowed to escape.

5. A **second Sikh War** began late in 1848. It originated in a rebellion at Mooltan, where two English officers, who had gone there to install a new governor, were murdered. The Sikhs, strongly posted at *Chillianwalla* on the Jhelum, were attacked by Lord Gough on the 13th of January, and a victory was won; but the loss of the English was so severe, that their leader was greatly blamed for having risked the engagement. However, on the 21st of February, at **Goojerat**, Gough utterly routed an immense host of Sikhs, and thus redeemed his fame. The Punjab was shortly afterwards, by a Proclamation of the Governor-General, annexed to the Indian Government.

1849 A.D.

6. The **Great Exhibition** of the Industry of all Nations, held in London in 1851, was a striking proof of the great development which the resources of the country had lately undergone. To Prince Albert is due the credit of first starting the idea of this great enterprise. It was indeed a splendid success. A palace of iron and glass, designed by Sir Joseph Paxton, was raised in Hyde Park, enclosing many acres with its walls, and overarching lofty trees with its crystal roof. There were gathered articles of various kinds from almost every land; and for five months, day after day, wondering thousands thronged the

May 1 to Oct. 14, 1851 A.D.

courts of the vast building. Its chief results were two: It gave a great impulse to every branch of manufactures and of arts; while, by drawing together men of every complexion, costume, and national character, who met under the same roof for the same peaceful end, it caused, as it could hardly have failed to do, a kindlier feeling among the nations of the Earth. Similar Exhibitions have since been held at London repeatedly, as well as at Dublin, Paris, Vienna, and Philadelphia.

7. The discovery of gold in **Australia** in the same year gave a great impetus to the colonization and development of that continent. The first gold-field was discovered near Bathurst, in New South Wales. Soon afterwards gold was found also in Victoria, which has from the first yielded more gold than any other colony. **Melbourne**, its capital, is probably the most extraordinary example of rapid city growth in the history of the world. Where there was in 1835 merely a group of squatters' tents, there is now a city with 200,000 inhabitants, a university, active commerce, and the reputation of being the greatest sea-port south of the equator. Victoria was constituted a separate colony in 1856, and Queensland in 1859.

8. The Russell Ministry was considerably weakened in 1851 by the opposition which its Ecclesiastical Titles Bill provoked. The Pope had divided England into Roman Catholic sees, and had appointed Cardinal Wiseman "Archbishop of Westminster." The Bill, which was passed with great difficulty, prohibited the assumption of territorial titles by English priests under a penalty of £100. It was never acted on, and was repealed in 1871. Early in 1852 the Ministry was defeated on a Militia Bill, and resigned, having held office for four years. The **Earl of Derby** then formed a Conservative Ministry, in which Mr. Benjamin Disraeli was Chancellor of the Exchequer and Leader of the House of Commons. **1852** A.D.

9. A **second Burmese War** broke out in 1852. The governor of Rangoon having ill-treated the commanders of two English vessels, Commodore Lambert was sent by the Indian Government to demand compensation. He was met with an insulting refusal. A second attempt to arrange the difficulty also failed;

and an English army then entered Burma. Martaban[1] on the shore, Rangoon on the eastern branch of the Irrawaddy, and Pegu on the river of the same name, were soon captured. A determined effort of the Burmese to recover Pegu was bravely met by the Madras Fusiliers. Notwithstanding these severe losses, the Court of Ava still refused to treat with the Indian Government; and the province of Pegu was made an integral part of the English dominions in the East.

10. On the 14th of September in the same year (1852) the **"Iron Duke,"**—the "Hero of a hundred fights,"—as Wellington was proudly called by his grateful countrymen, died at Walmer Castle, aged eighty-three. On the 18th of November his coffin was borne with warlike honours to St. Paul's, where lay the dust of Nelson.

11. In the hope of strengthening the Ministry in the House of Commons, Lord Derby had recourse to a dissolution of Parliament in July. The new House of Commons assembled in November; but, although the Government had abandoned Protection, it failed to secure a majority. It was defeated on the Budget proposals, and resigned in December. **Lord Aberdeen** then formed a Coälition Ministry, consisting of Whigs and Peelites, and including Lord John Russell, Lord Palmerston, and Mr. William Ewart Gladstone. The new Ministry was pledged to a Free Trade policy, and the further development of Peel's principles of finance.

1852 A.D.

QUESTIONS.—1. When was responsible government established in Canada? In what other provinces at the same time? What despatch had prepared the way for that? What was its purport?

2. What rule was laid down in Earl Grey's despatch? What have been the results of the change?

3. What revolution occurred in 1848? In what capitals were there tumults? What riots occurred in England?

4. Who was the head of the "Young Ireland Party"? What were the results of their proceedings?

5. When did the second Sikh War begin? What was its origin? For what was Lord Gough blamed? Where did he redeem his fame? What followed shortly afterwards?

6. To whom is the credit due of first starting the idea of the Great Exhibition of 1851? Who designed the structure? Describe the building. What were the results of the Exhibition?

7. Where was gold discovered in the same year? What effects had the discovery? Which colony has yielded most gold? What is remarkable in the history of Melbourne?

[1] *Martaban.*—A town near the mouth of Martaban river; 10 miles north-west of Moulmein, and 90 south-east of Rangoon.

8. What measure weakened the Russell Ministry in 1851? What were the origin and the object of that Bill? When was it repealed? What led to the resignation of the Ministry? Who succeeded? When?

9. When did the second Burmese War break out? What was its cause? What places were soon captured? What struggle took place at Pegu? What was the result of the war?

10. What was the date of the death of the Duke of Wellington? Where did he die? And where was he buried?

11. When did the Derby Ministry resign? What Ministry succeeded? Who were prominent members of it? What were its principles?

CHAPTER XVIII.

THE CRIMEAN WAR AND THE INDIAN MUTINY.

1. Quarrel between Russia and Turkey.
2. First Operations.
3. Invasion of the Crimea.
4. Battle of Balaklava.
5. Battle of Inkermann.
6. The Soldiers' Victory.
7. Lord Palmerston, Premier.
8. Novel Features of War.
9. Battle of the Tchernaya.
10. Abandonment of Sebastopol.
11. The Peace of Paris.
12. Dalhousie's Policy of Annexation in India.
13. Outbreak of the Mutiny.
14. Cawnpore and Lucknow.
15. First Relief of Lucknow.
16. Fall of Delhi.
17. Suppression of the Mutiny.
18. Second Derby Administration.
19. Abolition of the East India Company.

1. For several years a dispute about the **Holy Places**[1] at Jerusalem had been causing irritation between Russia and Turkey. Suddenly, Russia pushed her troops across the Pruth into **Moldavia**, which, with its neighbouring principality, **Wallachia**, she wished to hold as "a material guarantee" (July 2). This step led Turkey to declare war (October 5). Some weeks later an English fleet entered the Bosphorus; for England and France had resolved to interfere on the part of Turkey, desirous both of defending the weak against the strong and of preserving the balance of power. Though anxious to the last to bring the rupture to a peaceful close, the Allies nevertheless thought it well to prepare for emergencies by sending their united fleets into the Black Sea (January 4). The Russian Ambassador soon left London, and war was formally declared on the 28th of March 1854.

1853 A.D.

1854 A.D.

---

[1] *Holy Places*.—For centuries the Greek and Latin Churches have quarrelled for the possession and guardianship of these places. The territory on which they stand is now the property of Turkey.

2. The first operation of the war was the bombardment of **Odessa.**[1] Then followed the brave defence of Silistria[2] by the Turks, who drove the Russian troops across the Danube. Sir Charles Napier, commanding the Baltic fleet, destroyed the batteries of Bomarsund,[3] and reconnoitred the great fortress of Cronstadt, which guards the approach to the Russian capital.

3. But the **Crimea** was the chief theatre of the war. An army of 51,000 men, under Marshal St. Arnaud and Lord

[1] *Odessa.*—A fortified Russian port on the Black Sea; 30 miles north-east of the mouth of the Dniester. It has large exports of grain. (See the *Map.*)

[2] *Silistria.*—A fortified city on the Turkish side of the Danube. Its siege, by a force of 60,000 Russians, began 17th May 1854. On June 15, the Russians were forced to abandon their works, and were driven across the Danube. (See the *Map.*)

[3] *Bomarsund.*—A fortified sea-port, and station of the Russian fleet, in the island of Aland, in the Baltic. For this, and Cronstadt—the island fortress which guards St. Petersburg—see *Map*, p. 485.

Raglan, landed at Eupatoria[1] on the 14th of September. As they pressed southward along the shore, they found 60,000 Russians lining the steep slopes on the left bank of the **Alma.** The battle was confined to infantry and artillery. In three hours the passage of the river was forced; the southern heights were scaled; and the Russians fell back on Sebastopol, their great stronghold. The Allies then took up a position on the south of that city. Behind the English army, some six miles distant, was the port of Balaklava, where lay their ships and stores. On the 17th of October, the city was bombarded by land and sea. But the Russians had made good use of their time, and the works, strong before, were now almost impregnable.

Sept. 20, **1854** A.D.

4. A Russian attack on the English lines at **Balaklava** was nobly repulsed. Forcing the redoubts, which the Turks failed to hold, the Russians were rapidly breaking in on the lines, when a single Highland regiment—the 93rd, led by Sir Colin Campbell—deployed in a double line, and, with the rifle only, brought the enemy to a stop. The Brigade of Heavy Horse—Scots Greys, Enniskillens, and Dragoon Guards—dashed through a mass of Russian cavalry thrice their number. But an interest more intense clings to the heroic feat of "the Light Brigade." By a mistake, a band of Light

Oct. 25.

[1] *Eupatoria.*—A Russian sea-port on the west coast of the Crimea; 50 miles north of Sebastopol. For this and for *the Alma, Sebastopol, Balaklava,* and *Inkermann,* see the map of the Crimea on next page.

Horsemen, little more in number than six hundred, rode a mile down a slight slope, exposed to a merciless cross-fire, for the purpose of saving a few guns from capture. They reached the battery, sabred the gunners, and rode back again. Not two hundred escaped from the carnage of that charge. A French regiment then coming up, caused a part of the attacking Russian force to retreat, which led to the final rout of the whole.

5. Near the ruins of **Inkermann**, on the extreme right of the English position, a still more glorious victory was won. In the dusk of a November morning, a host of 60,000 Russians, concealed by the morning fog, pressed up the hill toward the English lines.

Nov. 5, 1854 A.D.

An earth-work, called the *Two-gun Battery*, formed the centre of the engagement. Finding the Russians in possession of this place, the Grenadier Guards, scarcely nine hundred in force, dashed gallantly on, supported by the Fusiliers, cleared the battery, and kept it all day in spite of everything that the enemy could do.

6. Inkermann differed from most modern battles in its want of a plan, and in the opportunity thus afforded for the display of individual prowess. It was emphatically the *Soldiers* who won the day, not the *Generals*. The French arrived late in the

day, and saved the heroic line of exhausted men from giving way to numbers that seemed to have no end. Eight thousand British troops, helped by six thousand French, kept the heights of Inkermann that day against a Russian force four times as great.

7. During the **winter** the troops suffered greatly from want of food and shelter, although ships laden with stores thronged Balaklava harbour. A motion taxing the Ministry with mismanagement of the war was passed in the Commons by a majority of 157 votes. The Earl of Aberdeen then resigned, and **Lord Palmerston** became Premier. More active measures were at once taken. A railway soon stretched from Balaklava to the camp; and then was seen the strange spectacle of a locomotive puffing to the field of war with biscuit, beef, and rum, or with a deadly load of shot and shell.

8. There were other novel features in this war, unknown to the heroes of Vitoria and Waterloo. An electric wire passed from the Crimea, under the Black Sea, to the shore near Varna, and thence to London, where every turn in the great struggle was known an hour or two after its occurrence. The leading newspapers, too, had reporters in the camp. Of these the most distinguished was Dr. William Russell, the "special correspondent" of the *Times*, whose *Letters on the War* have made him famous.

9. On the 2nd of March 1855 the Czar Nicholas died; but the war still went on, under his son Alexander. An expedition to Kertch[1] and the Sea of Azov, in May 1855, destroyed many Russian ships and several towns. Sardinia having joined the Anglo-French Alliance, her troops, in conjunction with the French, won a brilliant victory on the banks of the **Tchernaya.**[2] Twice during the war the French and the English leaders were changed. St. Arnaud, dying after the victory of Alma, was followed by Canrobert; who in May 1855 gave place to the victorious Pelissier. In the following month Lord Raglan died of cholera; General Simpson then took the command; but he was soon displaced by Sir William Codrington.

Aug. 16, 1855 A.D.

[1] *Kertch.*—A town on the shore of the Strait of Yenikale, leading from the Black Sea to the Sea of Azov.

[2] *Tchernaya.*—The river which flows into Sebastopol harbour from the south-east.

10. The earth-works of Sebastopol, to which the engineers had learned to trust rather than to granite walls, were forced at last. The French, already masters of the Mamelon, took the **Malakoff Tower**[1] with a brilliant dash. At the same time a British storming party seized the Redan; but Russian guns, sweeping it from every side, forced them to retreat with heavy loss. During the next night Gortschakoff led the Russian garrison across the harbour to the northern part of the city; which they held till peace was concluded. Before their flight they sank their ships. All the batteries and dock-yards were blown up by the Allies; and the grand fortress of Southern Russia was severely damaged.

Sept. 8, 1855 A.D.

11. During the summer of 1855, Admiral Dundas, who had superseded Sir Charles Napier in the command of the Baltic fleet, inflicted a severe blow on Russia by the bombardment of **Sveaborg**[2] (August 9–11, 1855). The Russian War raged also in Circassia, where the brave chief, Schamyl, fought against the troops of the Czar. **Kars**,[3] the central point of attack, was nobly defended by General Williams, until the want of reïnforcements compelled him to surrender. Crippled both on the Baltic and on the Black Sea, Russia at last sought for peace. The Treaty was signed at Paris in March 1856.

1856 A.D.

1856.—**Dr. Livingstone** returned to England, after exploring for two years the basin of the Zambesi, in Central Africa. He made a second expedition from 1858 to 1864. He started on a third expedition in 1865. In 1858 Captains Speke and Grant explored the White Nile as far as the Lake Victoria Nyanza In 1863 Sir Samuel Baker discovered the Lake Albert Nyanza.

— A new **War with China** began, in consequence of an outrage offered to the English flag. Canton was captured in 1857. Peace was restored by the Treaty of **Tien-tsin** in 1858, by which all China was thrown open to Europeans. About the same time a commercial treaty was concluded with **Japan**.

— The Persians seized Herat (a fortified city of Afghanistan, near the Persian frontier). An English fleet cannonaded Bushire (on the Persian Gulf) and took it. Persia sued for peace, and Herat was restored.

---

[1] *Malakoff Tower.*—A strongly fortified tower on a hill of the same name, forming the chief defence of Sebastopol on the southern side. The Mamelon and Redan were strong works on the same side.

[2] *Sveaborg.* — A strongly fortified Russian town, built on seven islands on the north of the Gulf of Finland, nearly opposite Helsingfors. Russia took it from Sweden in 1789. (See *Map*, p. 485.)

[3] *Kars.*—A fortified city of Asiatic Turkey; 100 miles inland from the south-eastern shore of the Black Sea. The houses are all built of black basalt.

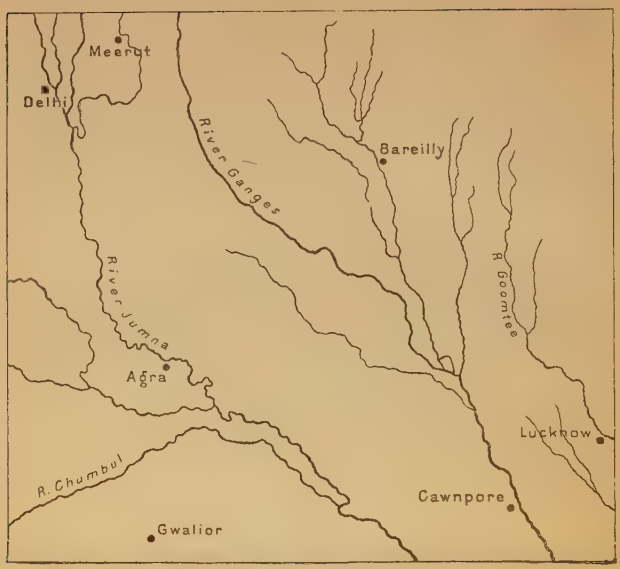
12. The Crimean War was quickly followed by the **Indian Mutiny.** Lord Dalhousie, appointed Governor-General in 1848, carried out the policy of annexation with a determined hand. Berar in 1853—Nagpore in 1854—and, greatest of all, Oudh in 1856, were the trophies of his administrative talent. Moslems and Hindus in Oudh having come into fierce collision, and the King seeming to be involved in the war, a body of English troops marched to Lucknow, deposed him, and completed the work of annexation.

13. Early in 1856 Lord Dalhousie gave place to Viscount Canning, a son of the great statesman, George Canning. During his administration the Mutiny occurred. It broke out at **Meerut,**[1] near Delhi, on the 10th of May 1857, by the 3rd Bengal Cavalry attacking the prison. There some of their comrades had been confined for refusing to bite cartridges, which, they alleged, were greased with cow-fat in order to make the Indians lose caste.[2] Not content with liberating their comrades, the sepoys set some houses on fire and murdered several Europeans. The mutineers then marched to Delhi, which was garrisoned by sepoys. Fortunately an English officer blew up the powder magazine at Delhi before the rebels could seize it. A similar outbreak took place at Lucknow on the 31st of May. These two capitals became the great centres of the strife. On receiving the news, Sir John Lawrence, Commissioner in the Punjab, at once disarmed the sepoys at Lahore; and the example was followed at Peshawur and Mooltan. **1857** A.D.

14. On the 4th of June 1857 the **siege of Delhi** was begun, by an army of about three thousand men, almost all Europeans. About the same time Sir Henry Lawrence, on whom his own guns had been treacherously turned, took refuge in the Residency of **Lucknow,** and was there besieged by sepoys. On the 27th of June a number of Europeans, who had fled out of **Cawnpore** to a hastily formed in- June.

[1] *Meerut.*—A town 35 miles north-east of Delhi. *Bareilly* is 110 miles south-east of Meerut. *Lucknow* is 44 miles from *Cawnpore.* (See *Map,* p. 490.)

[2] *Lose caste.*—Be degraded in social rank. The Hindus are divided, according to their religious laws, into four *castes* or classes. The distinctions among these are preserved with superstitious reverence.



trenchment in the neighbourhood, surrendered to the Mahratta chieftain, generally known as "Nana Sahib," on condition that they should be sent to Allahabad. They were nearly all slain either in the boats or in the barrack-yard.

15. On the 16th of July, Colonel **Henry Havelock** drove Nana Sahib from Cawnpore, and saw for himself the traces of the pitiless cruelty that had been perpetrated there. The relief of Lucknow, whose defender, Sir Henry Lawrence, had already received his death-wound, then became his great task. On the 25th of July he set out from Cawnpore. Sir James Outram, coming to supersede Havelock, generously declined to interfere with his operations, and served with him as a volunteer! Havelock and Outram crossed the Ganges with two thousand eight hundred men on the 19th of September, and reached the Residency[1] on the 23rd, where they were received with joy. It soon appeared, however, that the

Sept. 1857 A.D.

[1] *The Residency.*—For an interesting detailed account of this Relief of Lucknow, see ROYAL READER No. VI., p. 239.

women and children could not be removed; so that Havelock and Outram were themselves besieged in the place which they had come to succour.

16. The **fall of Delhi**, on the 20th of September, was mainly due to Sir John Lawrence. By almost incredible exertions he gathered forces of every kind, and sent down heavy cannon to breach the walls. Sir Archdale Wilson and General Nicholson were the officers under whose command the siege was brought to a successful close.

17. **Sir Colin Campbell** then marched to the relief of Lucknow, which he entered on the 17th of November. From the Residency those who had survived the siege were removed to a place of safety, where, on the 25th, the brave Havelock died, worn out with ceaseless toils. Sir Colin then defeated the Gwalior mutineers, and swept the basin of the Ganges, gradually trampling out the rebellion. On the 2nd of March 1858 he cleared Lucknow of rebels. **1858** A.D.
The fall of Bareilly on the 7th May was the closing act of the terrible drama. For these services the veteran chief received the title of Lord Clyde of Clydesdale, and later the baton of a Field-Marshal.

18. Before the end had been reached, a change of Ministry had taken place. In consequence of a plot formed in England to assassinate the Emperor of the French, Lord Palmerston introduced a Conspiracy to Murder Bill, making such conspiracy a felony punishable with penal servitude. On the second reading of the Bill the Ministry was defeated, and therefore resigned. In February **Lord Derby** became a second time Prime Minister.

19. The India Bill of 1858 extinguished the East India Company, as a ruling body. On the 1st of November in that year, before Government House in Calcutta, a public proclamation declared that the Queen of England had assumed the direct control and sovereignty of India, which would thenceforth be ruled by a **Viceroy** in her name. The home government of

---

1858.—The Princess Royal was married to the Crown Prince of Prussia,—now the Prince Imperial of Germany (January).

An Act was passed permitting Jews, on the resolution of the House, to omit certain words in the oath, and to sit in Parliament (July).

India was intrusted to a Secretary of State and a Council of fifteen.

QUESTIONS.—1. What led Turkey to declare war against Russia? What Powers resolved to aid Turkey? Why?

2. What was the first operation of the war? What place was bravely defended by the Turks? What did Napier accomplish in the Baltic?

3. What was the chief theatre of the war? Who commanded the French and the English army? Where did they land? What was the first battle? State its date and result. What position did the Allies take up at Sebastopol? What port did the English hold? When did the bombardment of Sebastopol begin?

4. What battle took place on October 25? What heroic incident occurred that day?

5. What battle was fought on November 5? What formed the centre of the engagement? Who held it all day?

6. In what did Inkermann differ from most modern battles?

7. What sufferings occurred in the winter? What charge was brought against the Ministry? What was its result?

8. What new features of warfare were seen in the Crimea?

9. What expedition and battle occurred in 1855? Describe the changes of command that took place.

10. What movement of the French decided the fate of the city? What fortress did the English attack? When did the Russians evacuate the city? What did they previously do?

11. Describe the events at Sveaborg and Kars. When and where was peace concluded?

12. By what was the Crimean War quickly followed? Who had been made Governor-General of India in 1848? What policy did he carry out?

13. Who succeeded him? When? Where did the Mutiny break out? When? How? Where did the mutineers then march? What was the second centre of the strife?

14. When did the siege of Delhi begin? Who was shut up in Lucknow? Of what cruelty was Nana Sahib guilty?

15. Who drove him from Cawnpore? What then became Havelock's great task? Who joined him? How did Outram show his generosity? When did they reach Lucknow? What then happened to them?

16. When did Delhi fall? To whom was the result due?

17. Who relieved Lucknow the second time? When? Who died a few days later? What was the closing event of the Mutiny?

18. What caused the fall of the Palmerston Government? Who succeeded?

19. What changes were made in the government of India in 1858?

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1. **1848.**—A new constitution was introduced in Switzerland. The supreme power was vested in a Federal Assembly of two Chambers, meeting at Berne. This change was the result of a war in 1847 between the Protestant and the Roman Catholic cantons.

2. **1848.**—The discontent of the French people with the government of Louis-Philippe led to a **third Revolution.** The crisis came when the Government forbade a reform banquet to be held by its opponents. Louis-Philippe took refuge in England, where he died in 1850. This revolution was followed by disturbances in Prussia, Austria, and other

German States. The King of Prussia proposed a union of all the German States. Ferdinand of Austria abdicated, and was succeeded by his nephew, Francis-Joseph. In France a Republic was proclaimed, of which Louis-Napoleon was voted President. Having become master of Paris by a *coup d'état* in 1851, he was declared President for ten years. In 1852 he was proclaimed Emperor of the French. (See 1870, p. 516.)

3. **1849.**—The independence of Hungary was proclaimed by **Louis-Kossuth**; but this displeased the officers of the army. The Hungarians were defeated by the Austrians and Russians, the revolution collapsed, and Kossuth fled to Turkey, and thence to England. The Emperor Francis-Joseph was crowned King of Hungary in 1867.

4. **1849.**—The Sardinians, attempting to drive the Austrians out of Italy, were defeated at **Novara**. Charles-Albert of Sardinia was then forced to abdicate in favour of his son Victor-Emanuel, afterwards King of Italy.

5. **1849.**—France sent troops to the assistance of the Pope, and **took Rome.** An insurrection, headed by the "Young Italy" party, had broken out in 1848, and a popular government was proclaimed. The Pope appealed to the Catholic Powers, and France sent him aid. He returned to the Vatican[1] in 1850. Rome was garrisoned by French troops till 1870, when the Franco-Prussian War rendered their withdrawal necessary.

6. **1853.**—**Turkey** declared war against **Russia.** England and France helped Turkey, and the Crimean War began in 1854. Sebastopol was taken in 1855. The war was terminated by the Peace of Paris (1856), by which Russia pledged herself not to keep vessels of war in the Black Sea, and not to build fortifications on the coast. These provisions were cancelled by the Congress of London in 1871.

QUESTIONS.—1. What change took place in Switzerland in 1848? In whom was the supreme power vested? Of what was this change the result?—2. Give the date of the third French Revolution. What led to it? When did the crisis come? Where did Louis-Philippe die? In what other countries did disturbances take place? What did the Emperor of Austria do? What form of government was proclaimed in France? Who was voted President? How did he secure his power for ten years? What title did he acquire in 1852?—3. When did the Hungarian Revolution take place? Who aided the Austrians? Who was the Hungarian leader? What was the result of the struggle? What took place in 1867?—4. When was the Battle of Novara fought? Between whom? Who won? What was the consequence to Sardinia?—5. Who sent troops to Rome in 1849? What led to this intervention? When did the Pope return to the Vatican? How long did the French troops garrison Rome?—6. When did the war between Russia and Turkey begin? Who helped Turkey? When did the war terminate? What were the chief provisions of the treaty? When were they cancelled?

[1] *The Vatican.*—The palace of the Popes in Rome.

CHAPTER XIX.

PROGRESS OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

1. Steamships and Railways.
2. The Penny Postage and the Tele-
3. Ocean Telegraphy. [graph.
4. Iron-clads and Turret-ships.
5. Steel Guns and Rifles.
6. Iron Bridges and Crystal Palaces.
7. The North-West Passage.
8. African Exploration.
9. The Nile.
10. Australian Exploration.
11. Engineering Works—The Telescope
12. Sanitary Affairs.
13. Minor Improvements.
14. Leading Authors.
15. Leading Artists.
16. Leading Inventors and Discoverers.

1. The application of **steam** to the purposes of locomotion has wrought a marvellous change on the life of the civilized world since the present century began. In 1811 Henry Bell, an innkeeper of Helensburgh, launched on the Clyde the **Comet**, a vessel of 25 tons burden, propelled by steam. Four years later, George Stephenson, a native of Wylam in Northumberland, achieved the construction of a locomotive engine capable of drawing waggons on a railway. In 1830 the same mechanical genius, aided by his son Robert, placed the **Rocket** on the rails of the new line between Liverpool and Manchester; and thenceforward the Railway System grew and expanded over the world. The great ocean triumphs, achieved by steamboats, were the voyage of the *Savannah* from New York to London (1819), and that of the *Enterprise* to India (1825). The *Great Britain*, an iron steamer with wire rigging and a screw-propeller, and the *Great Eastern* (680 feet long), built at Millwall between 1854 and 1857, are two of the most remarkable steamboats of the age.

2. The efforts of Rowland Hill, the son of a Birmingham schoolmaster, resulted in 1840 in the establishment of a general **Penny Postage**, which has had the effect of immensely increasing correspondence. But this was comparatively a slight matter, when viewed beside the achievement of Wheatstone and Cooke, who, in 1837, jointly constructed the **Electric Telegraph.** Their first successful trial took place on wires laid between Euston Square in London, and Camden Town. A necessary sequel was the invention of the **Submarine Cable**, of which the first idea occurred in 1842 to an American electrician named Morse. Jacob Brett reduced this idea to a practical form in 1851, by laying a wire wrapped in gutta-percha from Dover to

Calais. This was followed in 1858 by the gigantic enterprise of placing a cable across the Atlantic between Valentia on the Irish coast and Trinity Bay in Newfoundland. This cable conveyed messages three weeks, and then it ceased to carry the currents: there was a leak in the rope.

3. The eight years intervening between this failure and the grand success of 1866, were marked by the placing of lines in the Red and Mediterranean Seas and in the Persian Gulf. In 1865 the Atlantic Cable snapped during the process of laying it; but in the following year (1866) skill and science triumphed, not only in the successful laying of a new and stronger **Ocean Cable,** but in the recovery of the lost rope from the depths of the ocean. There are now three cables connecting the New World with the Old.

4. In 1821 an iron ship, put together in a London dock, steamed down the Channel to Havre. The application of iron armour to vessels of war became an object of rivalry between France and Great Britain. These **Iron-clads,** as they have been called, came into use during the recent Civil War in America. English constructers arm their vessels with solid plates of rolled iron, strongly backed by planks of teak strengthened with iron bars, and defended within by an iron skin. Iron armour has been recently applied also to forts; but the contest between cannon and iron-plating is not yet over. A shot-proof **turret,** or cupola, revolving on a pivot, is generally placed on the iron-clad or iron fort. The gun within, and its port-hole, can both be turned in any direction.

5. Steel cannon, not cast, but built ring by ring, are now made, capable of throwing an enormous conical steel shell with such force as to penetrate iron plates several inches thick. In small guns or fire-arms remarkable changes and improvements have been made. The old flint musket, throwing its round leaden bullet, received a percussion or detonating lock, which proved a great advantage; but it has undergone further and more important changes, by which it has become a **Breech-loading Rifle,** capable of sending a conical bullet with remarkable precision and force. These advances, and the introduction of the Railway, the Electric Wire, and even the Balloon into the field of war, have made the modern battle-field a scene

whose conditions but slightly resemble those of even Waterloo and Austerlitz.

6. It is well to remember that the modern applications of iron have not been confined to the science of destruction. In addition to the railroads, locomotives, and steamboats already noticed, vast bridges, such as the **Britannia Tubular Bridge** across the Menai Strait (1850), and the Victoria Bridge across the St. Lawrence at Montreal, both the work of Robert Stephenson, have been constructed of this metal. It has been applied also to building purposes, of which the **Crystal Palaces,** the first of which was erected for the Great Exhibition of 1851, have been the most notable examples.

7. The secret of the **North-West Passage** from Europe to the Pacific Ocean has been solved by two independent explorers. The earlier was the hapless Sir John Franklin, who left England in 1845 with the *Erebus* and the *Terror*, but who was frozen up with his ships, and perished with all his associates. The relics of the expedition were found at the mouth of the Great Fish River in 1857. Captain Robert Maclure, in the *Investigator*, sailed, after much delay and peril of life among the ice, from Behring Sea to Baffin Sea, in October 1850.

8. In **Africa,** the basin of the Zambesi has been explored by David Livingstone, a medical missionary, who has dispelled the delusion that the portion of Africa north of Cape Colony is an arid tract of barren sand. During his first journey (1849) he discovered Lake Ngami. His second (1852–56) resulted in the discovery on the Zambesi of the Victoria Falls, a cataract larger than Niagara. He then explored Lake Nyassa (1859), and everywhere found a fertile land, inhabited by tribes of some advancement, but blighted by the evil influences of the slave-trade, connived at by the Portuguese. In his last journey he explored Lake Tanganyika and the water system of Central Africa. He died at Ilala, in May 1873. In 1876 Lieutenant Cameron returned to England, having accomplished the feat of crossing the Continent of Africa from the east to the west coast.

9. The **Nile** has also received its share of attention from explorers, of whom two have been most distinguished. Captain Speke, an Indian officer, penetrated the continent from Zan-

zibar, and discovered (1858) a vast lake, which he named *Victoria Nyanza.* As Speke and his intrepid companion Grant were descending the Nile after this triumphant result of their toil, they met Mr. (now Sir Samuel) Baker at Gondokoro. Accompanied by his wife, Baker pressed up the stream, and was rewarded by the discovery (1864) of another lake of colossal size, the *Albert Nyanza*, which has more recently (1875) been explored by H. M. Stanley.

10. The most successful explorer of **Australia** was Captain Sturt, who in 1829 traced the course of the tributaries of the Murray, and in 1847 penetrated the sandy interior of the continent. A tragic interest hangs over the expedition of Burke and Wills in 1860–61. After having reached almost to the shore of the Gulf of Carpentaria, they retraced their steps, but reached Cooper's Creek too much exhausted to proceed. There they died of starvation. In 1862, Stuart succeeded in crossing the continent from south to north.

11. The *Thames Tunnel* is a remarkable work of engineering, —a passage of arched brick-work under the river—begun in 1825, and opened for traffic in 1843. Sir Mark Brunel was the engineer: his son constructed the two monster ships already named—the *Great Britain* and the *Great Eastern.* The giant reflecting *Telescope*, constructed at Birr in Ireland by the Earl of Rosse (1844), has added greatly to our astronomical knowledge. Among new planets recently discovered are Astrea (1845), Neptune (1846), Victoria (1850), and Vulcan (between Mercury and the Sun) in 1859. The number of planetoids (minor planets, between the orbits of Mars and Jupiter) is now 132.

12. The general use of *Gas* in dwelling-houses—the advance of *Photography* (first applied to taking portraits in 1839)—the adoption in domestic life of the *Sewing Machine*, invented by Elias Howe of Massachusetts—may be noted as steps of progress. In *Sanitary* affairs, the removal of cemeteries to the outskirts of cities—the improved ventilation and sewerage of houses—the enforcement of vaccination by law—have done much to abate the virulence of infectious diseases such as cholera and small-pox, and to improve the tone of public health.

13. There is more providence among the working classes;

and this has been encouraged by the establishment of *Savings' Banks*, and the increased facilities afforded by *Insurance Companies*. *Emigration* to the colonies clears the land of its surplus population; while the *Poor-houses*, under Government control, minister to the wants of those unable to support themselves. The *Repeal of the Paper Duty* (1861) gave a great impulse to the cause of popular education. The daily newspaper—usually a penny, but in many cases sold at a *halfpenny*—is a marvel of the present age, which would have astonished a previous generation quite as much as a telegram or an express train would have done.

---

14. LEADING AUTHORS—NINETEENTH CENTURY.

S. T. COLERIDGE, (1772–1834)—a poet of the Lake school—chief works, *The Ancient Mariner*, *Christabel* (a fragment), *Wallenstein* (a translation), *Lectures on Shakespeare*.

THOMAS CAMPBELL, (1777–1844)—a poet—author of *Pleasures of Hope* (1799); *Gertrude of Wyoming* (1809); ballads, such as *Hohenlinden;* naval lyrics, such as *Battle of the Baltic* and *Mariners of England*.

ROBERT SOUTHEY, (1774–1843)—a Lake poet—Laureate (1813–1843)—author of poems, *Thalaba* (1801), *Madoc* (1805), *Curse of Kehama* (1810); and prose works, *Life of Nelson* (1813), Histories of *Brazil* and *Portugal*.

WALTER SCOTT, (1771–1832)—a Scottish lawyer—chief poems, *Lay of the Last Minstrel* (1805), *Marmion*, and *Lady of the Lake*—author of the *Waverley Novels* (1814-1831)—lived chiefly at Ashestiel and Abbotsford on the Tweed.

LORD BYRON, (1788–1824)—romantic poet—author of *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage* (1812–1818), and Turkish tales in verse, such as the *Giaour* and the *Corsair*—a supporter of the revolted Greeks—died at Missolonghi.

WILLIAM WORDSWORTH, (1770–1850)—chief of Lake poets—lived at Rydal Mount—chief poem, *The Excursion* (1814)—other works, *The White Doe of Rylstone* and *The Prelude* (published after death)—Laureate (1843–1850).

THOMAS MOORE, (1779–1852)—Irish lyric poet—author of *Irish Melodies*, *Lalla Rookh*, an Eastern tale, &c.

SAMUEL ROGERS, (1763–1855)—a London banker—poet—wrote *Pleasures of Memory* (1822), and *Italy*.

FELICIA HEMANS, (1793–1835)—lyric poetess—chief work, *Forest Sanctuary;* but better known by shorter pieces of tender beauty, such as *Graves of a Household*, *Voice of Spring*, &c.

CHARLES LAMB, (1775-1835)—clerk in India House—essayist—chief work, *Essays of Elia.*

HENRY HALLAM, (1778-1859)—the most "judicial" of English historians—author of *Middle Ages* (1818), *Constitutional History of England* (1827), and *Literature of Europe* (1837-1838).

SIR DAVID BREWSTER, (1781-1868)—Editor of the *Edinburgh Encyclopædia;* begun 1808, ended 1830—wrote *Letters on Natural Magic,* and a *Life of Newton*—famous for his discoveries in optics.

LORD MACAULAY, (1800-1859)—historian—chief work, *History of England* (1849), giving the reign of James II. and part of William III., with a sketch of earlier history.

LORD LYTTON, (Sir Edward Bulwer)—(1805-1872)—wrote novels, such as *Rienzi, Last of the Barons, Caxtons,* &c.; poems, as *Arthur* and *Milton;* plays, *Richelieu, Lady of Lyons.*

THOMAS CARLYLE, (1795-1881)—native of Dumfries-shire—historian and essayist—author of *Sartor Resartus* (1833), *French Revolution* (1837), and *Frederick the Great* (1858).

CHARLES DICKENS, (1812-1870)—novelist—admirable actor of his own works—author of *Pickwick Papers* (1837), *Old Curiosity Shop, David Copperfield,* &c.

LORD TENNYSON, (born 1810)—Poet-Laureate—author of *In Memoriam* (1850), *Idylls of the King* (1859), &c.

WILLIAM M. THACKERAY, (1811-1863)—novelist and lecturer—author of *Vanity Fair* (1846), *Esmond* (1852), *The Newcomes* (1855).

HUGH MILLER, (1802-1856)—journalist and geologist—author of the *Old Red Sandstone* (1841), *Footprints of the Creator* (1850), and *Testimony of the Rocks* (1857).

GEORGE ELIOT, (Marian Evans)—(1820-1880)—wrote *Adam Bede, Romola,* and other novels; and *The Spanish Gipsy,* a dramatic poem.

---

15. LEADING ARTISTS.

BENJAMIN WEST, (1738-1820)—born at Springfield in America—a distinguished historical painter—President of the Royal Academy.

JOHN FLAXMAN, (1755-1826)—born at York—a great sculptor—chief works, Illustrations of Homer, Dante, and Æschylus—Professor of Sculpture to the Royal Academy.

SIR THOMAS LAWRENCE, (1769-1830)—born at Bristol—called the English Titian—celebrated for his portraits—succeeded Reynolds as State-painter to George III.—elected President of the Royal Academy 1820.

SIR DAVID WILKIE, (1785-1841)—born in Fifeshire—famed for his paintings of Scottish peasant life—chief works, his *Blind Fiddler, Village Festival,* and *John Knox Preaching before Queen Mary.*

SIR FRANCIS CHANTREY, (1782–1841)—native of Derbyshire—a distinguished sculptor—finest work, *Monument of Two Sisters* in Lichfield Cathedral.

JOSEPH M. W. TURNER, (1775–1851)—one of the best landscape painters of the English school—painted also several historical pictures—died under an assumed name in a humble lodging in London.

---

16. LEADING INVENTORS AND DISCOVERERS.

SIR HUMPHRY DAVY, (1778–1829)—born at Penzance in Cornwall—son of a wood carver—apprenticed to a surgeon—the inventor of the Safety Lamp (1815)—made great discoveries in chemistry and electricity—wrote *Salmonia*, and *Consolations in Travel*—died at Geneva.

GEORGE STEPHENSON, (1781–1848)—born at Wylam, Northumberland—the great Railway Engineer—inventor of the Locomotive Engine. His son **Robert** was the engineer of the famous Tubular Bridge over the Menai Strait.

SIR MARK ISAMBARD BRUNEL, (1769–1849)—a distinguished engineer—greatest work, the Thames Tunnel; begun 1825, finished 1843.

SIR JOSEPH PAXTON, (1804–1865)—once gardener to the Duke of Devonshire—designer of the Crystal Palace of 1851.

CHARLES WHEATSTONE—born at Gloucester, 1802—musical instrument maker, and Professor in King's College, London.

W. FOTHERGILL COOKE—a retired Indian officer, who resided for a time at Heidelberg. Cooke and Wheatstone may be regarded as the joint-inventors of the Electric Telegraph (1837).

LORD ROSSE, (1800–1867)—constructer, at Birr in Ireland, of the largest Telescope yet made—tube 8 feet, and speculum 6 feet in diameter—completed in 1845.

ROBERT MACLURE, (born 1807)—captain R.N.—the discoverer of the North-West Passage, in the *Investigator* (1850)—entering by Behring Strait, he established the fact that a passage exists by Banks Strait and Melville Sound into Baffin Sea.

DAVID LIVINGSTONE, (1817–1873)—a factory-boy at Blantyre—medical missionary to Africa—discovered *Lake Ngami* (1849), *Victoria Falls* on the Zambesi, and *Lake Nyassa* (1859).

JOHN HANNING SPEKE, (1827–1864)—an Indian officer—noted as an African explorer—starting from Zanzibar, he discovered the *Victoria Nyanza* in 1858—killed in England by the accidental discharge of his gun.

SIR SAMUEL BAKER, (born 1821)—native of Worcestershire—ascending the White Nile from Khartoum, he discovered the *Albert Nyanza* in 1864.

QUESTIONS.—1. What has wrought a wonderful change during the present century? Who launched the *Comet*, and when? Who was the constructer of the *Rocket*? Give the date. What were the earliest ocean-voyages by steam? Name the most remarkable steamboats of the age.

2. Who originated the Penny Postage? Give the date. When did the first trial of the Electric Telegraph take place, and where? Which was the first Submarine Cable? What caused the Ocean Cable of 1858 to fail?

3. Name the various cables laid between 1858 and 1866.

4. When did an iron ship first cross the English Channel? What is a war-ship plated with iron called? Describe the armour of a ship. How is the gun defended?

5. How are steel cannon formed? What missile do they throw? What change has taken place in fire-arms? What modern inventions have been brought into use in war?

6. State some of the peaceful applications of iron. Give great instances.

7. Who solved the mystery of the North-West Passage? Tell the fate of Franklin.

8. In what capacity did Livingstone go to Africa? Give his various discoveries, with dates. Where and when did he die? What feat did Lieutenant Cameron accomplish?

9. State the discoveries of Speke and Baker. Who accompanied the latter? Who has lately explored Lake Albert Nyanza?

10. Who was the most successful explorer of Australia? What two expeditions did he undertake? Name some explorers of Australia who perished. How far did they penetrate, and of what did they die? Who crossed the continent in 1862?

11. Tell what you know of the Thames Tunnel, of the Rosse Telescope, and of recently discovered planets and planetoids.

12. Tell what you know of Photography, and of the Sewing Machine. By what measures has public health been improved?

13. What have encouraged provident habits among the working classes? What has been the effect of emigration? When was the Paper Duty repealed, and with what results?

14. Name, with some particulars, the authors of *Ancient Mariner, Pleasures of Hope, Thalaba, Waverley, Giaour, Excursion, The Pleasures of Memory, Lalla Rookh, The Essays of Elia, Constitutional History of England.* Name the chief works of Macaulay, Scott, Rogers, Hallam, and Carlyle. Who are the two greatest novelists of the time? What two lady authors have achieved eminence? Name their works. Who are the leading poets of the time? What do you know of Lytton and Hugh Miller?

15. Give some account of West, Flaxman, and Lawrence. Name the chief works of Wilkie. Give some account of Turner.

16. For what is Sir Humphry Davy famous? Who invented the *Locomotive Engine*? Who was engineer of the *Menai Tubular Bridge*? Describe the achievements of Brunel, Paxton, and Rosse; of Maclure, Baker, Speke, and Livingstone. Who were the joint inventors of the Electric Telegraph?

CHAPTER XX.

THE CONSTITUTION.

1. Its Composite Character.
2. The Ministry.
3. The Sovereign.
4. The House of Lords.
5. The House of Commons.
6. The Electors.
7. Supremacy of the Commons.
8. Progress of a Bill.
9. In Committee.
10. The Second House.
11. The Royal Assent.
12. The Privy Council.
13. The Prime Minister
14. The Cabinet.
15. Appeal to the Country.
16. Adjournment — Prorogation — Dissolution.
17. Government of the Colonies.
18. Dominion of Canada.
19. Australasian Colonies
20. India.
21. The Viceroy.
22. The Governors of Provinces.
23. Ceylon.

1. The Government of Great Britain, Ireland, and the English Colonies and Dependencies, is vested in the **Sovereign** and the two Houses of Parliament,—the **House of Lords** and the **House of Commons.** It is thus a mixed government,—not pure monarchy, nor pure aristocracy, nor pure democracy, but a compound of all three. In this composite character lies its strength. Every grade of society, every interest in the country, is represented in it. The power of the landed aristocracy has its due weight in the House of Lords. That of the great middle class, and of the industrial classes who coöperate with it in producing wealth, is supreme in the House of Commons. The influence of an ancient hereditary monarchy is preserved in the Sovereign, who crowns the edifice.

2. The chief business of the two Houses of Parliament is to make laws, and to vote money for the public service. In theory, the power of administering the laws belongs to the Sovereign alone; but in practice, this is done in the Sovereign's name by the **Ministry,**[1]—a body of advisers chosen from both Houses of Parliament. The Ministry is responsible to Parliament for the conduct of affairs, and for the advice it gives to the Crown; and whenever it ceases to have the confidence of the House of Commons, the Sovereign must choose another body of advisers. Thus Parliament is virtually supreme.

3. The crown is hereditary, and females are not excluded; but the Sovereign must be a Protestant of the Church of Eng-

[1] See p. 347, § 2, and Note.

land. The **Sovereign** has power to make war and peace; to pardon a convicted criminal; to summon, prorogue, and dissolve Parliament; to coin money; and to confer nobility. The assent of the Sovereign is also necessary to every new law. But, as already stated, these prerogatives are now exercised by the Sovereign under the advice of the Ministry for the time being; or by the Ministry in the name of the Sovereign.

4. The **House of Lords,** or Upper House of Parliament, comprises Lords Spiritual and Lords Temporal, as follows:—

LORDS SPIRITUAL.		
English Archbishops	2	
English Bishops	24	
		26
LORDS TEMPORAL.		
Royal Princes	5	
English hereditary Peers	338	
Scottish hereditary Peers, who are also Peers of the United Kingdom	50	
Irish hereditary Peers, who are also Peers of the United Kingdom	81	
Scottish representative Peers, elected for each Parliament	16	
Irish representative Peers, elected for life	28	
Life Peers	3	
		521
Total		547

The Lord Chancellor, sitting on the woolsack, acts as president or chairman of the Lords. Any Bill, except a money Bill, may originate in the House of Lords.

5. The **House of Commons,** or Lower House of Parliament, consists of representatives of the counties, boroughs, and universities in England and Wales, Scotland and Ireland, distributed as follows:—

	England and Wales.	Scotland.	Ireland.	Total.
County..... Members	253	39	89	381
City and Borough "	237	31	12	280
University "	5	2	2	9
Total.....	495	72	103	670

6. The electors are, both in boroughs and in counties, householders rated for relief of the poor, lodgers occupying rooms valued at £10 a year unfurnished, and persons in service who occupy free houses as part of their remuneration. The members for the universities are elected by the graduates. The chairman of the Commons is called the *Speaker*, because he is their spokesman or representative in approaching the Sovereign. A Speaker is elected at the beginning of each new Parliament. Any Bill may be introduced in the House of Commons; and money Bills can originate in that House alone. Thus, commanding the sources of supply, it can effectually control the Sovereign.

7. In great emergencies it also controls the Upper House; for a Ministry, strongly supported in the House of Commons, may advise the Sovereign to create a sufficient number of new peers to give its party a majority in the House of Lords.[1] The threat of this measure has generally induced the Lords to yield to the wishes of the Commons.

8. The process of law-making is conducted as follows:—The proposed law is introduced in either House in the form of a **Bill**, after leave has been given so to do. It is then read for the *first time*, usually without opposition, and ordered to be printed, to acquaint the members with its details. The Bill is then printed and circulated, and a day is fixed for the *second reading*. The first debate and voting usually take place on the question whether the Bill shall pass this reading or not. If it pass the second reading, the House proceeds to consider and vote upon each clause in the Bill separately.

9. For that purpose the House goes into *committee*. This committee consists of the same members as the House, but the Chairman of Committees takes the place of the Speaker, and the strict rules of debate and forms of procedure observed in the House are relaxed, to the extent of allowing any member to speak as often as he likes on the same clause, whereas no member can speak oftener than once at any of the other stages. After the Bill has passed through committee, it is "reported" to the House in its amended form, and is ready for the *third*

[1] See p. 360, § 13; and p. 464, § 17.

reading. If it pass this reading, it is then sent to the other House.

10. There it undergoes an exactly similar process; three readings, with a careful examination in committee between the second and the third. If amended or altered there, the Bill is sent back to the House in which it originated, which either agrees to the amendments or not, and may demand a conference with the other House to settle differences.

11. When the Bill has finally passed both Houses, the **royal assent** is required before it can become an **Act** or law. This is given either personally or by commission. No Sovereign has ventured to exercise the right of *veto*—that is, of withholding the royal assent—since 1707.

12. From very early times, the advisers of the Sovereign have been known as the **Privy Council,** the members of which are dignified with the title of Right Honourable. But this body was found to be too numerous, and too widely scattered, for the systematic transaction of business. It moreover consists of men of different parties and conflicting views. It therefore became customary, after the Revolution of 1688, to intrust the government to a committee of the Privy Council, called the Ministry, or the Cabinet. But now ministers are not selected from the Privy Council, but from Parliament, and become privy councillors afterwards.

13. The head of the Ministry is the **Prime Minister,** or Premier. He used to owe his office to the good-will or favour of the Sovereign, but now he owes it to the confidence of his supporters in Parliament. The Sovereign chooses as Premier the recognized leader of that political party which has a majority in the House of Commons for the time, and intrusts him with the task of forming a Ministry from among his own supporters.

14. The chief ministers form the **Cabinet,** which determines the general policy of the Ministry, and the measures which are to be proposed to Parliament. The Cabinet consists necessarily of—

1. The Premier, or First Lord of the Treasury.
2. The Lord Chancellor.
3. The Chancellor of the Exchequer.

4. The Home Secretary.
5. The Foreign Secretary.
6. The Colonial Secretary.
7. The Indian Secretary.
8. The Secretary of War.
9. The President of the Privy Council.

The following ministers have also at different times been included in the Cabinet; but that body does not usually consist of more than fourteen or fifteen members:—

The First Lord of the Admiralty.
The President of the Board of Trade.
The President of the Local Government Board.
The Lord Privy Seal.
The Chief Secretary for Ireland.
The Postmaster-General.
The Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster.
The Vice-President of the Committee of Council on Education.
The Secretary of State for Scotland.

15. When a Ministry loses the confidence of the majority of the House of Commons, it is customary for it to resign. The Sovereign then intrusts the leader of the opposite party with the formation of a Ministry. But, instead of resigning, a defeated Ministry may advise the Sovereign to dissolve the Parliament and call a new one, in the hope that the constituencies may return a majority of members favourable to its views. This is called an "appeal to the country."

16. Each House of Parliament may *adjourn* its meetings from day to day. The Sovereign, advised by the Ministry, *prorogues* Parliament from session to session; and *dissolves* it, when a new Parliament is to be elected. The duration of a Parliament is limited by law to seven years; but no Parliament since that law was passed (1716) has exceeded six years in duration. During the present reign, the average length of the Parliaments has been under five years.

17. The **Colonies and Dependencies** have their internal affairs administered by resident Governors and Councils, appointed by the Crown, and controlled in London by a Secretary of State, who is a member of the Cabinet. The more populous and older colonies have been placed as much as pos-

sible on the footing of self-government; that is to say, there is in each a legislative assembly elected by the people.

18. The **Dominion of Canada** may be taken as an example of a self-governed colony. The Executive power is vested in the Governor-General, aided by a Privy Council, all the members of which are appointed by the Crown. The Legislature consists of two Houses: the Senate, or Upper House, consisting of 77 members appointed by the Governor-General in Council; and the House of Commons, consisting of 200 members elected by the people for the term of five years. The Executive Council, or Ministry, is responsible to the House of Commons; that is to say, when it ceases to command a majority there, it resigns. For local purposes, each province has a Lieutenant-Governor and a Legislature of its own—the latter generally consisting of two Houses.

19. The governments of the **Australasian Colonies** are very similar to that of Canada, with the exception that the legislative council, or Upper House, is generally appointed by the Crown. In New Zealand, New South Wales, and Queensland, there is in each a Governor and a Cabinet, or executive council, of four or five members, appointed by the Crown; a legislative council of from fifteen to thirty members, also appointed by the Crown; and a legislative assembly, or Lower House, elected by the people. In South Australia, the legislative council is elected by the whole colony voting as one province; in Tasmania and Victoria, it is elected by the upper and moneyed classes, but in other respects the arrangements are the same as in the neighbouring colonies.

20. **India** is an example of a dependency still directly under imperial control. Since 1858 the affairs of India have been regulated by the Secretary of State for India and the Indian Council, sitting in London, of which the Secretary is president. The Council consists of fifteen members,—seven appointed by the Court of Directors of the East India Company, and eight by the Crown.

21. The executive authority in India is vested in the **Viceroy**, appointed by the Crown, and responsible to the Secretary of State for India. He is assisted in his administrative duties by a Supreme Council sitting at Calcutta, consisting of five ordi-

nary members nominated by himself and the Commander-in-chief, with six additional members appointed for the purpose of framing laws and regulations. There are also seven chief secretaries of state in India, to superintend the different departments of the government.

22. For administrative purposes, India is divided into eight provinces under Governors or Commissioners, four smaller provinces directly under the government of India, and 154 feudatory states administered by Hindu and Mohammedan chiefs, with the aid of English political agents. Madras and Bombay (with Sindh) have each a Governor; Bengal, the North-West Provinces (with Oudh), and the Punjab, each a Lieutenant-Governor; the Central Provinces, Assam, and British Burma, each a Chief Commissioner.

23. **Ceylon,** which in government is independent of India, is an example of a government in which the local and the imperial elements are combined. But the influence of the latter greatly preponderates. The Governor and the executive council of five members are appointed by the Crown. The legislative council contains fifteen members—five of them are the executive council, other four are also officials, and six only are unofficial.

QUESTIONS.—1. In whom is the Government of the British Empire vested? Wherein lies the strength of the constitution? Show how it represents different interests and classes.

2. What is the chief business of Parliament? To whom in theory does the power of administering the laws belong? To whom does it belong in practice? To whom is the Ministry responsible?

3. Under what restriction is the crown inherited? What are the prerogatives of the Sovereign? By whom are they really exercised?

4. What are the two kinds of Lords? How many Lords spiritual are there? How many Lords temporal? How many of these are representative? How often are they elected? Who is president of the House of Lords? What Bills may not originate in the House of Lords?

5. Of whom does the House of Commons consist? How many county members does it contain? How many city and borough? How many university? How many for England and Wales? For Scotland? For Ireland? How many in all?

6. Who are the electors in boroughs and in counties? Who is the chairman of the Commons? Why is he so called? What enables the Commons to control the Sovereign?

7. How can that House also control the House of Lords?

8. What are the steps through which a Bill passes in the House in which it is introduced?

9. What is meant by the House going into committee? Where does the Bill next go?

10. What takes place there? What is done if the Bill is amended or altered?

11. What step remains? When was the royal assent last withheld?

12. Who have been the Sovereign's advisers from early times? Why is that body unsuitable for the purpose? To whom is the government intrusted?

13. Who is head of the Ministry? How is he chosen?

14. What ministers necessarily belong to the Cabinet? What others have at different times been included in it? Of how many members does it usually consist?

15. When does a Ministry resign? Who is then asked to form a Ministry? What may a defeated Ministry do, instead of resigning?

16. What is meant by *adjourning*, *proroguing*, and *dissolving* Parliament? How long may a Parliament last? What has been the duration of the oldest Parliament since 1716? What has been the average duration of the Parliaments during the present reign?

17. How are the British Colonies and Dependencies governed? On what footing are the older ones put?

18. In whom is the executive power in Canada vested? Who appoints the members of the Senate? Who elect the members of the House of Commons? To whom is the Ministry responsible?

19. Wherein do the Australasian governments differ from that of Canada? Describe the governments of New Zealand, South Australia, and Tasmania.

20. Of what is India an example? Of whom is the Indian Council formed?

21. In whom is the executive authority vested? To whom is he responsible? By whom is he assisted?

22. How is India divided for administrative purposes? Which provinces have Governors? Which have Lieutenant-Governors? Which have Chief Commissioners? What has Berar?

23. Of what is Ceylon an example? Which element preponderates? How? How many members are there in the legislative council? How many are unofficial?

COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES,

WITH THE DATES OF THEIR ACQUISITION.

I.—IN EUROPE.

Gibraltar	1704
Heligoland	1807
Malta and Gozo	1800

II.—IN ASIA.

Aden	1839
India—Bombay, Madras, Bengal, Sindh, Punjab, N.-W. Province, Oudh, Assam, Burma, &c., &c.	1600
Ceylon	1796
Hong-kong	1842
Eastern Straits Settlements	1786
Labuan	1846
Cyprus	1878

III.—IN OCEANIA.

Australia	1770
Tasmania	1803
New Zealand	1839
Fiji Isles	1874

IV.—IN AFRICA.

Cape Colony and Southern Settlements	1806
Sierra Leone and Western Settlements	1631
Mauritius and Eastern Settlements	1810

V.—IN AMERICA.

Dominion of Canada—Quebec, Ontario, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Manitoba, North-West Territory, and British Columbia	1763
Newfoundland	1713
Honduras	1763
Bermudas	1612
West Indies	1655
British Guiana	1803
Falkland Islands	1765

APPENDIX *A.*

SUMMARY OF RECENT EVENTS.

1859.—The Derby Ministry was defeated on a Reform Bill, and resigned. **Lord Palmerston** formed his **second Ministry.** Mr. William Ewart Gladstone was Chancellor of the Exchequer. A groundless alarm of a French invasion gave rise to the **Volunteer movement.**

1860.—A **third Chinese War** occurred. The English and the French marched to Pekin, and captured the Summer Palace of the Emperor. They prepared to bombard the city, but it surrendered, and the Convention of **Pekin** was signed, by which **Kowlun,** a district opposite Canton, was ceded to England.

— A **Commercial Treaty** was negotiated **with France** by Mr. Cobden. By this treaty the import duty on wines and other French products was very much reduced, and English manufactures were admitted into France on equally favourable terms. This was the beginning of the financial reforms effected by Mr. Gladstone while Chancellor of the Exchequer. In 1861 he abolished the **Paper Duty.**

1861.—**Albert, the Prince Consort,** died of typhoid fever, aged 42.

1862.—The diminished supply of cotton, owing to the American Civil War, stopped the mills, and caused **great distress in Lancashire.** A relief fund of more than one million sterling was subscribed. This showed the danger of relying on one source alone for the raw material. There was immediately a great increase in the supply of cotton from India, Australia, Egypt, and Italy.

— An **International Exhibition** was held in London.

— The **Alabama,** a Confederate cruiser, built on the Mersey, but equipped for war on the high seas, inflicted great damage on the shipping of the Northern States. In 1865 the United States Government claimed compensation from the English Government for the loss caused by the *Alabama* and other vessels, on the ground that the latter should have prevented the vessels from leaving English ports. In 1871, a joint-commission met at Washington and signed a treaty referring the claims to a court of arbitration. Its award (September 1872) required England to pay to the United States upwards of three million sterling.

1863.—The Prince of Wales was married at Windsor to **Alexandra,** daughter of the King of Denmark.

1865.—Lord Palmerston died; the Ministry was reconstituted by

Earl Russell,—Mr. Gladstone, Chancellor of the Exchequer. The **rinderpest**, or steppe-murrain, swept away the cattle of England and Scotland in hundreds.

1866.—Owing to the increase of **Fenianism**[1] the *Habeas Corpus* Act was suspended in Ireland. A great commercial panic occurred in London, owing to extensive failures. A Reform Bill proved fatal to the Russell Ministry. The **Earl of Derby** formed his **third Ministry**, with Mr. Disraeli as Chancellor of the Exchequer, July. The **Atlantic Cable**[2] was successfully laid between Valentia (Ireland) and Newfoundland.

1867.—The **Second Reform Act** was passed by the Derby Government, extending the franchise, and altering the distribution of seats. Acts for Scotland and Ireland followed. In **boroughs**, the franchise was given to householders who have been resident for one year and have paid poor-rates, and lodgers who have occupied for one year rooms with a rent of £10 unfurnished. In **counties**, the franchise was given to tenants of land or houses worth £12 a year (in Scotland, £14). Eight seats were taken from England, of which seven were given to Scotland and one to Wales; but the total number in the House remained unchanged—658. Lord Derby retired; **Mr. Disraeli** succeeded.

— The British North America Act, for the Confederation of the Provinces there, was passed, March. **The Dominion of Canada was proclaimed**, July 1. The provinces united were **Quebec** (Lower Canada), **Ontario** (Upper Canada), **Nova Scotia**, and **New Brunswick**. In 1870 the Hudson Bay Territory was annexed. Part of it was organized as the province of **Manitoba**, and the remainder was called the **North-West Territory**. **British Columbia** (including Vancouver Island) was added to the Dominion in 1871, and **Prince Edward Island** in 1873. Newfoundland alone stands aloof now.

1868.—An English army, under Sir Robert Napier, invaded **Abyssinia**, and released European captives in the hands of King Theodore. **Magdala**, Theodore's mountain fortress, was stormed. It was then found that the King had shot himself. Napier was made Lord Napier of Magdala. The expedition cost the country £8,300,000.

— Mr. Disraeli, being in a minority, dissolved Parliament. The elections went against him, and he resigned, December. **The Gladstone Ministry** was formed. The **Telegraphs Act** was passed, enabling the Postmaster-General to purchase existing telegraphs, July. Telegrams at a uniform rate of one shilling for twenty words to any part of

[1] Fenianism is so called from *Finn* or *Fionn*, the reputed leader of the ancient Irish militia. Its object was not merely repeal of the Union, but the erection of a Republic in Ireland. Fenianism was promoted chiefly by adventurers from the United States.

[2] An Atlantic Cable was first laid in 1858, but it very soon lost its transmitting power. A cable snapped while being laid in 1865. After the cable of 1866 was laid, that of 1865 was fished up and completed. In 1869, a French Cable was laid from Brest to St. Pierre

the United Kingdom, were soon introduced. In 1874 the telegraph service yielded an income of upwards of one million sterling. The **Halfpenny Post Card** was introduced in 1870.

1869.—An Act was passed for the disestablishment and disendowment of the **Irish Church** after January 1, 1871.

1870.—The **Irish Land Act**, securing a more favourable tenure to tenants, was passed. No tenant can be ejected without compensation. A tenant has also a claim for improvements effected by him during his tenancy.

— An **Elementary Education Act** for England and Wales was passed. The Act provides for the popular election of school boards in places where sufficient provision for education is not made by voluntary effort. The election of a school board in London was compulsory. The Act also provides for school rates being levied, enacts a conscience clause, and allows the adoption of compulsory bye-laws.

1871.—An Act was passed abolishing religious **Tests in the English Universities,**[1] June. A Bill for the **Abolition of Purchase in the Army** (with compensation) was rejected by the Lords. Purchase was then abolished by Royal Warrant,[2] July.

1872.—An Act was passed introducing **Vote by Ballot** experimentally for eight years, at parliamentary and municipal elections. The restriction of the Act to eight years was inserted in the House of Lords. The same Act abolished the public nomination of candidates.

— An **Elementary Education Act for Scotland** was passed. It established compulsorily a school board in every parish and borough, armed with powers to levy a school rate, and to enforce the attendance of all children of suitable age.

— Earl Dufferin succeeded Lord Lisgar (Sir John Young) as Governor-General of Canada.

— The Dutch settlements on the west coast of Africa were transferred to England by treaty, to remove the complications which arose from the intermixture of Dutch and English territory.

— Lord Mayo, the Viceroy of India, was murdered at Port Blair, in the Andaman Islands, by an Afghan convict. He was succeeded by Lord Northbrook.

1873.—A **strike** of about 60,000 miners **in South Wales**, rather than submit to a reduction of wages, caused much distress. The price of coal in London rose to 52s. a ton.

— **David Livingstone**, the African missionary-traveller, died at Ilala, in Central Africa, May 4. He was 56 years of age, and he had

[1] University tests were abolished in the Scottish universities in 1861, and in Trinity College, Dublin, in 1873.

[2] The abolition of purchase has cost the country over two million sterling. In 1875 an Act was passed to facilitate Regimental exchanges by payment. It was opposed by the Liberals on the ground that it was a partial return to the system of purchase.

spent 29 years in exploring different parts of Africa. He was buried publicly in Westminster Abbey in April 1874.

— The Ministry of Sir John Macdonald in Canada was forced to resign, on account of their having accepted, from a rich capitalist who had obtained the contract for the Pacific Railway, large sums of money to be employed in a general election.

— The **Shah of Persia** broke through Eastern custom and visited London, as well as other European capitals.

— Sir Bartle Frere obtained the assent of the Sultan of Zanzibar to a treaty for the abolition of the **slave trade** on the east coast of Africa.

1874.—**Prince Alfred** (second son of the Queen) was married to the **Grand Duchess Marie** of Russia, January.

— General **Sir Garnet Wolseley** took and destroyed **Coomassie**, the capital of Ashantee (West Africa). The cause of the war was the interference of the Ashantees with the commerce of neighbouring tribes who were under the English Protectorate. The King renounced by treaty all claim of sovereignty over these tribes.

— Failure of the rice crops from want of rain led to a famine in Bengal and Behar.

— The **Fiji Islands**, in the Pacific Ocean, were annexed to England, by request of the natives.

— Mr. Gladstone suddenly dissolved Parliament. The elections gave the Conservatives a large majority. The Gladstone Ministry resigned, and the **second Disraeli Ministry** was formed.

1874.—An Act was passed for the better administration of the law respecting **Public Worship**, having for its object to check the increase of Ritualism in the Church of England.

— An Act was passed **abolishing Lay Patronage** in the Church of Scotland, and transferring the election of ministers to the communicants and adherents in each congregation.

1875.—Acts were passed amending the laws relating to disputes between **Employers and Workmen**. Contract was put entirely on a civil footing; but breaches of contract tending to deprive a town of its gas or its water supply, to endanger human life, to cause bodily injury, or to expose property to destruction, will be treated criminally. Severe penalties were instituted for molesting and persecuting those who do not join in trade disputes.

— The English Government purchased from the Khedive of Egypt, for £3,800,000, about nine-twentieths of the shares in the Suez Canal.

1876.—**Lord Lytton** succeeded Lord Northbrook as Viceroy of India.

— Queen Victoria was proclaimed **Empress of India** in London (April 28). The same proclamation was made in India with great solemnities, January 1, 1877.

1878.—A **Convention** or defensive alliance between Great Britain and Turkey was signed at Constantinople (June). England agreed to

protect Turkey from aggression in Asia. Turkey promised reform, and gave up Cyprus to be administered by England.

— A new **Afghan War** was begun, to force an English alliance on the Ameer Sheer Ali. In 1881 Candahar was handed over to the new Ameer, Abdurrahman, and the British troops withdrew.

— A **Zulu War** began. Cetewayo the King was captured in 1879.

1880.—The Conservatives were defeated in a General Election, and **Mr. Gladstone** again became Prime Minister.

— **Lord Ripon** succeeded Lord Lytton as Viceroy of India.

— The Boers of the **Transvaal** revolted; but they submitted after being promised self-government under British suzerainty.

1881.—**Ireland** was in a disturbed state; coercive measures were passed, and the Land League was suppressed.

— **Lord Beaconsfield** died in April.

1882.—**Lord Frederick Cavendish** was murdered in Dublin. The murderers were discovered next year, and were hanged. The **Prevention of Crimes Act** was passed.

— In consequence of disturbances in **Egypt**, a British force was sent there, and restored the Khedive's authority.

1883.—The native tribes in the **Soudan** revolted under "**the Mahdi.**" An Egyptian force under Colonel Hicks was annihilated.

1884.—**General Gordon** was sent to relieve Khartoum, but had to defend himself there.

— **The Third Reform Act** was passed, granting Household Franchise in counties.

— **Prince Leopold** died suddenly at Cannes.

— **Lord Dufferin** succeeded Lord Ripon as Viceroy of India.

1885.—An expedition was sent to relieve Gordon; but before it got near **Khartoum** the city was taken by the Mahdi, and Gordon was killed.

— A dispute with Russia as to the Afghan frontier was settled peaceably.

— A **Redistribution of Seats Act** was passed (June 24). It divided large constituencies into districts with one member each. England and Wales received 495 members, Scotland 72, and Ireland 103; total, 670,—an addition of 12 members to the House.

— Mr. Gladstone's Ministry was defeated on the Budget (June 3), and resigned. A Conservative Ministry was formed by the **Marquis of Salisbury.**

— **Louis Riel** was executed at Regina (Canada) for having headed a revolt of Indians and half-breeds (November).

— A **General Election** took place under the New Franchise Act (November): Liberals, 334; Conservatives, 250; Nationalists, 86.

1886.—Lord Salisbury resigned (January). **Mr. Gladstone** became Prime Minister for the third time (February).

— Mr. Gladstone's **Government of Ireland Bill** was rejected by the House of Commons on the second reading (341 against, 311 for) (June). Parliament was dissolved. The elections went against Mr. Gladstone; he resigned, and **Lord Salisbury** returned to office (July). The Liberal Unionists, headed by Lord Hartington, supported the Conservative Ministry. **Mr. Goschen** joined the Ministry in January 1887.

— The Governor-General of India issued a proclamation annexing **Upper Burmah** to the British Empire (January 1).

1887.—The **Jubilee** of Her Majesty Queen Victoria was celebrated with great enthusiasm on June 21.

— Parliament passed the **Criminal Law Amendment (Ireland) Act** (July), and a new **Irish Land Act** (August). The Crimes Act increased greatly the power of the Irish Executive. The Nationalists adopted "the Plan of Campaign," a scheme for depositing rents with trustees until landlords agreed to reductions.

— The Queen's sovereignty over **Zululand** was proclaimed at Ekowe.

1888.—A **Local Government Act** for England and Wales was passed. A **Royal Commission** was appointed to examine charges of being in league with conspirators and murderers, brought against Mr. Parnell and other Irish members.

— **Lord Lansdowne** succeeded Lord Dufferin as Viceroy of India.

APPENDIX *B.*

CONTEMPORARY FOREIGN EVENTS.

1859.—A war broke out between **Sardinia** and **Austria** for the possession of Northern Italy. France aided Sardinia. Austria was defeated. Sardinia gained Lombardy, and France was rewarded by the cession of Savoy and Nice. In 1860 Garibaldi conquered Naples, which was annexed to Sardinia. The other Italian States (excepting part of the Papal territory and Venetia) were amalgamated with the new Kingdom of Italy under Victor Emanuel, which held its first Parliament at Turin in 1861. In 1865 Florence was made the capital temporarily. In 1866 Venetia was ceded by Austria to France, and added to Italy. In 1871, after the withdrawal of the French troops, Rome was made the capital. The temporal power of the Popes (begun in 754) then came to an end; but the Pope's spiritual supremacy was not interfered with.

1861.—The Czar of Russia issued a decree for the total **abolition of serfage** within two years. The number of slaves thus emancipated was 23,000,000.

— The **Civil War in America** between North and South (Federals and Confederates) began with the secession of South Carolina from the Union. The chief cause of disagreement was their difference of opinion on the question of negro slavery, the North pleading for total and immediate abolition. Eleven States ultimately seceded. They fixed their capital at Richmond, and elected a Confederate President. The war ended in 1865, in the complete triumph of the North. The Union was then reconstituted. Before the end came, Abraham Lincoln, whose election as President had brought on the crisis, was shot in the theatre of Washington.

1863.—The Russian Government ordered a conscription in Poland, which was intended to remove all the young men of the higher and middle classes from their country. The Poles rose in rebellion, but the rising was put down with great cruelty.

1864.—An attack on **Japan**, by English, French, Dutch, and American forces, in consequence of the murder of an English subject there, led to the opening of Japan to Western commerce.

— The Archduke Maximilian, brother of the Emperor of Austria, was made **Emperor of Mexico** by the French. England, France,

and Spain had interfered in the internal affairs of Mexico in 1862. France alone prosecuted the quarrel vigorously, and set Maximilian on the throne. In 1867 he was vanquished and shot by Juarez, the native President.

1864.—The **Ionian Islands**, which had been under the protection of Great Britain since 1815, were annexed to the kingdom of Greece.

— **Schleswig** and **Holstein** were invaded by Prussia and Austria in conjunction, were wrested from Denmark, and transferred to the allies jointly. In 1865 the duchy of Lauenburg[1] was ceded by Denmark to Prussia. In 1866 Prussia claimed Schleswig and Holstein for herself. This, with other causes of jealousy, led to the **Seven Weeks' War** between Prussia and Austria, in which Prussia was joined by Italy. Austria was signally defeated in the Battle of Sadowa[2] (or Königgrätz). The results of the war were, that Austria was excluded from the Germanic Confederation, and that Venetia was transferred to Italy. A North German Confederation (including all the States north of the Main and Bohemia) was formed, with Prussia at its head; the States south of that line formed the South German Confederation. (See 1871, p. 517.)

1866.—All the British Colonies in North America (except Newfoundland and Prince Edward Island) were combined in the **Dominion of Canada**, with Ottawa as capital.

1869.—The **Suez Canal** (by which large ships may pass from the Mediterranean to the Red Sea and thence to the Indian Ocean) was completed and opened for traffic.

1870.—Queen **Isabella of Spain**, dethroned in 1868, resigned her crown in favour of her son Alfonso, Prince of Asturias. But the Spanish people elected Amadeo (second son of Victor Emanuel of Italy), and he entered Madrid in January 1871. As he was unable to reconcile the factions by which the country was torn, he abdicated in 1873, and returned to Italy. A Republic was then proclaimed.

— **France** declared war against **Prussia** (July 15), being dissatisfied with the conduct of the latter in connection with the candidature of the Prince of Hohenzollern for the vacant Spanish crown. After the French had sustained several severe defeats, the Emperor Napoleon III. was forced to surrender at **Sedan**,[3] September 1. The Empire was abolished, and a Republic was proclaimed at Paris. The Prussians invested Paris, September 19. Fighting went on in other parts of France. Paris surrendered (January 28, 1871); and the war was terminated by the Peace of Frankfort (May 10), by which most of

---

[1] *Lauenburg.*—A small Duchy east of Holstein, and north of the Elbe. Denmark obtained it in 1815.

[2] *Sadowa.*—A village in Bohemia (Austria) 60 miles north-east of Prague. *Königgrätz* is a fortified town 10 miles south-east of Sadowa.

[3] *Sedan.*—In the north of France, near the Belgian frontier; 130 miles north-east of Paris.

Elsass (Alsace) and the German-speaking portion of Lothringen (Lorraine), including the great fortress of Metz,[1] were transferred to Prussia. Prussia also occupied the north and east of France till a very large war indemnity was paid. Napoleon died in England in 1873.

1871.—William I. of Prussia was proclaimed **Emperor of Germany** at Versailles. On the outbreak of the Franco-Prussian War, the States of the Southern Confederation joined Prussia. The triumph of Prussia over France increased its influence very greatly; and advantage was taken of this to complete the unification of Germany. The Confederations of 1866 were abolished, and all the German States except Austria were combined in a new German Empire, under the hereditary supremacy of Prussia.

— A **Communist insurrection** broke out in Paris (March 18), which was besieged by the forces of the National Assembly meeting at Versailles. After a siege of two months, during which the Paris mob perpetrated barbarous cruelties and wanton destruction of property, the insurgents surrendered, May 29. M. Thiers was elected President of the new French Republic, August 31. He resigned in 1873, and was succeeded by Marshal MacMahon, who was appointed President for seven years. Meantime the question of adopting a permanent Constitution was postponed.

1871.—The **Mont Cenis Tunnel**, on the Chambery and Turin Railway, connecting France with Italy, was formally opened for traffic. It occupied fourteen years in making.

1873.—Russia sent an expedition to invade Khiva, in Turkestan. The Khan or Governor surrendered. Many Russian captives were released, and a large portion of territory was annexed to Russia.

1874.—Prince Alfonso, son of the ex-Queen Isabella, was proclaimed King, as Alfonso XII. The Carlist War continued till the beginning of 1876, when Don Carlos fled first to France, then to England.

1875.—Serious disturbances arose in Herzegovina, Bosnia, and Servia, and greatly embarrassed the Turkish Government.

1876.—A newly-elected French Assembly and Senate met at Versailles in March,—the Assembly to sit for four, the Senate for nine, years.

— The Servians and the Montenegrins declared war against Turkey (July). They were dissatisfied with the weak and corrupt government of Turkey, and wished to be independent. The Servians were defeated in the field, and made peace (March 1877). Meantime appalling accounts were published in England of Turkish atrocities in Bulgaria.

1877.—**Russia** declared war against **Turkey** (April), and at the same time concluded a treaty with Roumania. The Servians again declared war (December). The Russians were successful; but Plevna was long

[1] *Metz.*—**On the Moselle; 170 miles east of Paris.**

and bravely defended by Osman Pasha (July to September). When Plevna fell, the Russians crossed the Balkans and threatened Constantinople. Then Turkey yielded, and signed the preliminary Treaty of San Stefano (February 24, 1878).

1878.—A **Congress** of the Powers, called at the suggestion of the English Government, met at Berlin, and made the **Treaty of Berlin,** settling the affairs of Turkey (July). Roumania, Servia, and Montenegro were made independent. Bulgaria was made a free tributary state. Eastern Roumelia received a share of self-government and a Christian prince. Greece was promised an extension of territory. Russia recovered the part of Bessarabia lost in 1856, and received Batûm, Ardahan, and Kars.

1879.—Marshal Macmahon resigned the Presidency of the French Republic, and was succeeded by **M. Grévy.**

1880.—In France the government of M. de Freycinet resolved to execute the decrees against the **Jesuits** and other unauthorized religious orders (March).

1881.—**Alexander II.,** Czar of Russia, was assassinated in St. Petersburg. Four attempts on his life had previously been made. These were the result of the plots of a discontented section of his subjects, called Nihilists.

— General Garfield, President of the United States, was shot and mortally wounded at Washington. He died eleven weeks later.

— A French expedition to Tunis resulted in the submission of the Bey; but it was unpopular in France.

1882. Servia was declared a kingdom, and Prince Milan was proclaimed king.

1883. The French seized Tamatave in Madagascar. Their interference at Tonquin led to a rupture with China.

— Henry, Comte de Chambord, the last representative of the House of Bourbon, died in Austria. He was styled Henry V. of France by the Legitimists.

1884.—The **British Association** met at Montreal, Canada.

— At Calcutta, the Legislative Council passed the **Ilbert Bill,** allowing natives to act as judges.

1885.—The **Congo Free State** in Central Africa was recognized by the European Powers at Berlin.

— The French troops suffered reverses in **Tonquin.** The result was a Ministerial crisis in France. M. Ferry resigned, and was succeeded by M. Brisson. Peace was concluded with China in June.

— A ten days' war broke out between **Servia** and **Bulgaria.** The Servians, who were the aggressors, were obliged to sue for peace. A treaty was signed in March 1886.

1886.—**Eastern Roumelia** was united with Bulgaria by firman of the Sultan.

— The **Orleans** and **Buonaparte** princes were expelled from France by vote of the Senate. (The vote was rescinded as regards the Duke d'Aumale in March 1889.)

— **Prince Alexander of Bulgaria** resigned his throne, and was succeeded by Duke Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg (July 1887).

1887.—The one hundredth anniversary of the Constitution of the United States was celebrated in America.

— Charges of fraudulent disposal of honours brought against M. Wilson, son-in-law of President Grèvy (France), led to the resignation of the latter. **M. Sadi-Carnot** succeeded to the presidency.

1888.—**William I.**, Emperor of Germany, died at Berlin, in his ninety-first year (March). His son succeeded as **Frederick III.** In June he died, and was succeeded by his son **William II.**

— **Slavery** was abolished in Brazil.

— The eighth centenary festival of the **University of Bologna** (Italy) was held with great rejoicings.

1889.—**Milan**, King of **Servia**, abdicated, and was succeeded by his son **Alexander.**

APPENDIX *C*

BIOGRAPHIES.

These short Biographies may be used as Outlines for Composition Exercises

Albert, Prince, Consort of Queen Victoria, born 1819. His father was Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. He was married to Queen Victoria in 1840. He abstained from interfering in politics, and devoted himself to promoting science, industry, and education. He originated the Great Exhibition of 1851, and was actively engaged in promoting that of 1862 at the time of his death. After a short illness, he died at Windsor in December 1861.

Alfred the Great, King of Wessex, born at Wantage (Berkshire) 849 A.D. He was fourth son of King Ethelwulf. Soon after his accession (871) he was forced to disband his troops and retire to Athelney (Somersetshire), owing to the successes of the Danes. He defeated them at Edington, 878, and devoted himself to improving his kingdom and his people till his death in 901. He was an author, as well as a skilful general.

Anselm, an Italian churchman, born 1033. He was Abbot of Bec in Normandy; and in 1093 was made Archbishop of Canterbury. He was the champion of the Church against William the Red and Henry I., and had twice to quit England for safety. He died at Canterbury in 1109.

Anson, George, Lord, a naval commander, born 1697. In 1739 he sailed with five men-of-war against the Spanish settlements in South America. In 1741 he doubled Cape Horn, and returned to England in 1744, having sailed round the world. In 1747 he commanded the Channel Fleet, and captured six French men-of-war. He was then made Lord Anson. In 1758 he again commanded the Channel Fleet. After that he was made Admiral and Commander-in-Chief of the English Navy. He died in 1762.

Argyle, Archibald Campbell, Marquis of, leader of the Covenanters in Scotland, born 1598. In 1644, he took arms against Montrose and the Royalists; but in 1651 he placed the crown on Charles the Second's head at Scone. Afterwards, however, he submitted to Cromwell; and after the Restoration he was charged with high treason, and beheaded at Edinburgh, 1661.

Argyle, Archibald Campbell, Earl of, son of the preceding. He was a zealous Royalist, but he strenuously opposed the measures of James, Duke of York, in Scotland. He was condemned to death in 1682 for high treason, but escaped to Holland. In 1685 he joined in Monmouth's rebellion, made a descent on Scotland, was captured, and beheaded at Edinburgh.

Augustine, first Archbishop of Canterbury, was sent to England by Pope Gregory the Great, 597 A.D. He was made Archbishop in 602; died 605. He should not be confounded with Augustine (commonly called St. Augustine), Bishop of Hippo, and one of the fathers of the early Christian Church, born 354, died 430 A.D.

Bacon, Francis, Lord, Viscount St.

Albans and Verulam, philosopher, statesman, and lawyer, born 1561. His father was Sir Nicolas Bacon, Lord-Keeper of the Great Seal. After leaving Cambridge he went to France in the suite of the English Ambassador. While there, and when only nineteen, he wrote a work on *The State of Europe*. In 1592 he entered Parliament as member for Middlesex. His great talents obtained for him rapid promotion in the legal profession. In 1613 he was made Attorney-General, and in 1618 he became Lord High Chancellor of England. In 1621 he was convicted of receiving money from suitors; and although it was alleged that in doing so he merely followed the custom of his predecessors, he was degraded and fined. The King ordered his release in two days. But he retired from the Court, and died in 1626. He was the author of several great works—*The Advancement and Proficiency of Learning, The Novum Organum*, and *Essays*.

Beaufort, Henry, Bishop of Winchester and Cardinal, born 1370. He was a son of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, and Catherine Swynford. He was the great rival of Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, during the minority of Henry VI. In 1429 the Cardinal triumphed and had the young King crowned. He died in 1447, six weeks after the Duke.

Becket, Thomas à, a powerful churchman, who defied King Henry II. His father was of Norman descent, and was a London merchant. Becket was made Archbishop of Canterbury in 1162. The ground of his quarrel with the King was Becket's refusal to allow the clergy to submit to the civil courts. Henry triumphed at the Council of Clarendon in 1164; but the prelate afterwards set at naught the "Constitutions" then passed. A hasty expression of the King suggested to some of his knights that he wished to get rid of Becket by violence; and they murdered him in the Cathedral of Canterbury, 1170.

Bonner, Edmund, Bishop of London, born 1499. He was trained under Wolsey, and became chaplain to Henry VIII. At first he favoured the Reformation; but on the accession of Edward VI. he refused to take the oath of supremacy, and was twice imprisoned. When Mary came to the throne he was restored to his see, and became a zealous upholder of her policy. On the accession of Elizabeth he was thrown into prison, where he died, 1569.

Brougham, Henry, Lord, statesman and lawyer, born 1779. He was at first a member of the Scottish bar, but he went to the English bar in 1808. Soon afterwards he entered Parliament as a Whig, and distinguished himself by his vehement eloquence. He added greatly to his popularity by his successful defence of Queen Caroline, 1820. He had always been the friend of reform; and when Earl Grey came into office in 1830, Brougham was made Lord Chancellor. He continued to hold that office till 1834. From that time till his death, in 1868, he kept aloof from party politics, and devoted himself to philanthropic objects and to social and legal reform. Brougham was one of the earliest contributors to *The Edinburgh Review*, and throughout his long life devoted much time to literary and scientific pursuits.

Burke, Edmund, philosopher and statesman, born 1729. He first attracted notice by his essay on *The Sublime and Beautiful*, published in 1757. Some years later he became Private Secretary to Lord Rockingham, and in 1766 entered Parliament. He strenuously opposed North's policy towards the American Colonies; and while the war was going on, he advocated the recognition of their independence. He took a prominent part in the impeachment of Warren Hastings (1786–1795); and he eloquently denounced the excesses of the French Revolution. He died in 1797.

Bute, John Stuart, Earl of, for a short time Premier of England, born 1713. He owed his honours to his showy manners rather than to talent. He had great influence with George III. when a young man, through his mother the Princess of Wales. He became Prime Minister in 1762; but his own

colleagues sneered at his incapacity, and he resigned in less than a year. He died in 1792.

Cabot, Sebastian, a navigator and discoverer, born at Bristol, 1477. He crossed the Atlantic in 1497, and Newfoundland and the coast of Labrador were discovered. He spent the rest of his life partly in the service of Spain, partly in that of England. He passed a genial old age in England, where he organized the Russian trading company. He died in 1557.

Canning, George, statesman and orator, born 1770. He at first went to the bar; but in 1793 he entered the House of Commons, and resolved to make politics his profession. He ably supported Pitt till the death of that minister in 1806. He was Foreign Secretary in the Portland Ministry in 1807. He blamed Lord Castlereagh for the failure of the Walcheren expedition. The result was a duel, in which Canning was wounded; and both left the Ministry. When Castlereagh committed suicide in 1822, Canning succeeded him as Foreign Secretary in Liverpool's Ministry, and he introduced into it a more liberal tone. He advocated Roman Catholic Emancipation. He became Premier in 1827, but he died before the end of that year. His second son, Viscount Canning, was Governor-General of India (1856–62), and was made an Earl.

Canute the Great, King of Denmark and England. He succeeded his father Sweyn in Denmark in 1014. On the death of Ethelred II. in 1016, England was divided between Edmund Ironside and Canute. When Edmund died, Canute obtained the whole kingdom, and married Ethelred's widow. He united Danes and Englishmen in England, and formed a strong government. His rebuke of his flattering courtiers is famous. When they said that nothing was too great for him to accomplish, he set his chair on the seashore, and commanded the waves not to approach him. As they covered his feet, he reminded his courtiers that there was only one Sovereign whom winds and waves obeyed. Died 1035.

Castlereagh, Robert Stewart, Viscount, and Marquis of Londonderry, statesman and diplomatist, born 1769. He entered Parliament in 1794. He held subordinate offices in the Pitt and Addington Administrations. In 1807 he joined the Portland Ministry as War Secretary. He was blamed for the failure of the Walcheren expedition. Canning demanded his dismissal. The result was a duel (see *Canning*). Castlereagh was Foreign Secretary in Lord Liverpool's Administration, 1812. He took the lead in resisting the demand for Parliamentary Reform, 1816. He became Marquis of Londonderry on his father's death in 1821; and he died by his own hand in 1822.

Caxton, William, the first English printer, born 1412. He began life as a farmer's boy, was then apprenticed to a London mercer, and went to Bruges as agent of the Mercers' Company. Hearing of Gutenberg's invention of types, he learned the art of printing, and in 1471 introduced it into England. His press was erected in the Almonry at Westminster. His earliest works were translations—*Recuyel of the Hystoryes of Troy*, and *The Game and Playe of the Chesse*. Died 1491.

Cecil, William, Lord Burleigh, chief Minister of Queen Elizabeth, born 1520. In Edward the Sixth's reign he was Secretary of State. On Elizabeth's accession he became her chief adviser. He was made Lord High Treasurer in 1571, and died in 1598.

Cecil, Robert, Earl of Salisbury (son of the preceding), born 1550. His father trained him expressly for statesmanship. In 1587 he became Secretary of State. He was Lord High Treasurer from 1609 till his death in 1612.

Clarendon, Edward Hyde, Earl of, statesman and historian, born 1608. In the Civil War he sided with the King, and was his chief adviser after the removal of Strafford and Laud. During the Commonwealth he joined Charles II. in Holland. At the Restoration he returned with Charles, and was made Lord Chancellor. He was instrumental in passing a series of repressive Acts, which are called "The Clarendon Code,"

—the Corporation, Uniformity, Conventicle, and Five Mile Acts. In 1667 he escaped impeachment by flight. In his exile he wrote *The History of the Rebellion*. He died at Rouen in 1674. His daughter was married to James II., so that Queen Mary II. and Queen Anne were his grand-daughters.

Clive, Robert, Lord, the founder of the English dominion in India, born 1725. He began life as a clerk in the East India Company's service. He soon tired of that sedentary life, and entered the army. In 1751 he took Arcot with 500 men, and held it with 300 against 10,000. In 1757 he defeated the Nabob of Bengal at Plassey, and avenged the Black Hole of Calcutta. This victory laid the foundation of the English power in the East. On his return to England he was made a peer. In 1773 he was charged by the House of Commons with having abused his power, to enrich himself. He was honourably acquitted, but he felt the sting so deeply that he committed suicide, 1774.

Clyde, Colin Campbell, Baron, soldier, born 1792. He entered the army in 1808, and served in the Peninsula, in North America, in China, and in India. He distinguished himself greatly at Chillianwalla and Goojerat, 1849. He commanded the Highlanders in the Crimean War. He rendered valuable service at the Alma. At Balaklava he repelled a charge of cavalry with his Highlanders drawn up in line—"the thin red streak topped with a line of steel." In 1857 he was sent to India to quell the Mutiny; and he was rewarded for his success with a peerage and the title Baron Clyde. He died in 1863.

Cobden, Richard, the apostle of Free Trade, born 1804. He was partner in a printed-cotton factory in Manchester. He travelled in Europe and America, and published the results of his observations in pamphlets. About 1838 he began to agitate for the Repeal of the Corn Laws, and the Anti-corn-law League was formed in 1839. In 1846 he saw his persevering and disinterested labours crowned with success. Sir Robert Peel gave Cobden the whole credit of the measure. His countrymen presented him with £70,000. In 1859–60 he negotiated a commercial treaty with France, the object of which was to promote intercourse between the two countries. Cobden was throughout life the consistent advocate of a peace policy. He died in 1865.

Coke, Edward, a Judge, one of the greatest of English lawyers, born 1551. He was called to the bar in 1578, and soon acquired a very large practice. He became Solicitor-General in 1592, and Attorney-General in 1594. He then quarrelled with Bacon. The most famous prosecutions which he conducted were those against the Earl of Essex, Sir Walter Ralegh, and the conspirators in the Gunpowder Plot. In all cases he showed equal skill, learning, and bitterness. He then became Chief-Justice of the Common Pleas, and afterwards of the King's Bench. He lost the favour of the King by opposing the royal prerogative; but his boldness added greatly to his popularity. In 1616 he was removed from office. In 1620 he entered Parliament, and took the popular side against the Crown. He was the chief author of the Bill of Rights. He died in 1633.

Columbus, Christopher, the discoverer of America, born at Genoa, 1445. In 1480 he published his belief that there was a continent across the Atlantic. With three vessels, provided by Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, he sailed westward in August 1492. In October he landed on San Salvador. He returned to Spain in 1493. He made several other voyages, and discovered the mainland of America in 1498. His enemies plotted against him in his absence, and in 1506 he died in poverty and neglect.

Coverdale, Miles, a celebrated early translator of the Bible, born 1485. Soon after he had been ordained he embraced the Reformation principles. In 1532 he went abroad, and laboured with Tyndale in the work of translating the Scriptures. In 1535 he published the first complete English Bible. He edited Cranmer's, or the Great Bible, in 1539; was made Bishop of Exeter in 1551, but was ejected and imprisoned

on Mary's accession. In two years he was released, and went to Geneva. He returned to England in 1558, and died in 1565.

Cranmer, Thomas, first Protestant Archbishop of Canterbury, born 1489. He gained Henry the Eighth's favour by suggesting that the divorce case should be referred to the universities. He was made Archbishop, and annulled the marriage in 1533. He superintended the translation of *The Great Bible*—the first English Bible printed by authority. (See *Coverdale.*) He was a member of the Regency on the accession of Edward VI., and he had the chief share in preparing the Liturgy and in drawing up the Forty-two Articles (1549). On Mary's accession he was thrown into the Tower. He recanted to save his life, but refused to read his recantation in public. For this he was burned at Oxford, 1556.

Cromwell, Oliver, Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, born at Huntingdon, 1599. He left Cambridge to study for the bar, and in 1628 entered Parliament as member for Huntingdon. On the dissolution of Parliament he retired to a farm at St. Ives. In 1636 he removed to a property in the Isle of Ely, inherited from an uncle. There he became famous as a defender of popular rights, and was known as "Lord of the Fens." He was sent to the Long Parliament as member for Cambridge, and at once took his place among the Patriots. When the Civil War broke out, he raised a troop of horse in Cambridgeshire, and soon acquired a great reputation for military skill. To the steadiness of his "Ironsides" the victories of Marston Moor and Naseby were mainly due. After the overthrow of the King, the party of the Independents, headed by Cromwell, acquired the chief power. They had command of the army. They got possession of the King's person. They expelled their rivals, the Presbyterians, from Parliament, and tried and executed the King. Cromwell, now supreme, subdued Ireland and Scotland to the Parliament, and then defeated Charles II. at Worcester, 1651. In 1653 he was made Lord Protector. He died in 1658.

Cromwell, Thomas, Earl of Essex, born 1490, at Putney, where his father was a blacksmith. After having been employed on various secret missions abroad, he was taken into Wolsey's service. In 1535 he was made Vicar-General in Church affairs, and superintended the suppression of the monasteries. He incurred Henry's displeasure by advising his marriage with Anne of Cleves; he was charged with heresy and high treason, and was beheaded on Tower Hill, 1540.

Dalrymple, John, first Earl of Stair, lawyer and statesman, born 1644. His father was the famous Lord President Stair, the greatest of Scottish jurists. John, known in his father's lifetime as the Master of Stair, was the most influential man in Scotland in the time of William III. He became principal Secretary of State for Scotland in 1691, and incurred great odium for his share in the massacre of Glencoe. For this he was dismissed from office in 1695. He was, however, afterwards made an earl (1703). He died in 1707.

Drake, Sir Francis, a celebrated admiral, born 1545. In his youth he made several expeditions to the West Indies and South America, where he inflicted much damage on the Spaniards, and acquired great treasure. On the last of these occasions (1577–80), he sailed round the world. On his return he was knighted by Queen Elizabeth, who attended a banquet on board his ship. In 1586 he brought home some of the colonists from Virginia; on which occasion tobacco is supposed first to have been introduced into England. The next year he sailed into Cadiz harbour, and did great damage to the shipping. He was Vice-Admiral, under Howard, against the Spanish Armada, which he greatly helped to defeat. He died in 1596.

Dunstan, Abbot of Glastonbury, an English monk and statesman, of great influence during the reigns of Edwy and Edgar. He became Archbishop of Canterbury in 959, and shortly afterwards Papal Legate. He greatly ex-

tended the Papal power in England. He displaced many of the English clergy, and put foreign monks in their benefices. Born 925, died 988.

Eliot, Sir John, statesman, born 1590. He appeared as the leader of the popular party in the House of Commons in the second Parliament of Charles I. (1626). In the third Parliament, he took an active part in drawing up the Petition of Right. It was on his motion that the Commons insisted on their right to control the King in ecclesiastical as well as in civil affairs. On the dissolution of Parliament, he and other eight of the leading members were thrown into prison. Eliot died in prison, 1632.

Essex, Robert Devereux, Earl of, a favourite of Queen Elizabeth, born 1567. He accompanied Leicester to Holland, and distinguished himself at Zutphen. He afterwards served in Portugal, France, and Spain, and was made Earl-Marshal of England. He had frequent quarrels with the Queen. On one occasion, when he opposed her rudely at a council meeting, she gave him a box on the ear; whereupon he laid his hand threateningly on his sword. He was sent to Ireland to quell Tyrone's rebellion; but he wasted time in fruitless and rather suspicious negotiations. His enemies took advantage of these circumstances to prejudice the Queen against him. Hearing this, he suddenly returned to England; and though at first well received, he was afterwards imprisoned. On recovering his liberty he attempted a rising in London, to compel the Queen to dismiss her advisers. For this he was beheaded, 1601. It is said that the Queen had given him a ring, by sending which to her at any time he might command her pardon. He asked the Countess of Nottingham to take the ring to the Queen: but she was ordered by her husband (who was a bitter enemy of Essex) to withhold it. When the Countess, on her death-bed, confessed this to Elizabeth, the Queen said, "God may forgive you, but I never will." The story, however, rests on doubtful authority.

Essex, Robert Devereux, Earl of, (son of the preceding,) born 1592. He served in the Palatinate in 1620, during the Thirty Years' War. On his return to England, he joined the popular party in Parliament against the Court. When the Civil War broke out, he took the command of the Parliamentary forces, and fought at Edgehill, Newbury, and on other fields. The Self-denying Ordinance deprived him of his command in 1645, and he died the following year.

Fairfax, Thomas, Lord, a Parliamentary general in the Civil War, born 1611. When the war broke out, he, as Sir Thomas Fairfax, joined the army with his father, Lord Fairfax. When Essex retired in consequence of the Self-denying Ordinance (1645), Fairfax succeeded him as commander-in-chief, and gained the decisive victory of Naseby. He became Lord Fairfax on his father's death in 1648. He refused to act as one of the King's judges, and, after the Restoration, he made peace with Charles II. He died in 1671.

Falkland, Lucius Cary, Viscount, a distinguished statesman of the time of the Civil War, born 1610. As a young man he had a great reputation for learning, and he lived in retirement till his thirtieth year, enjoying the friendship of the most learned men of the time. In 1640 he entered Parliament, and at once joined Hampden, Pym, and the popular party, in seeking the redress of grievances. He was not prepared, however, to go so far as they, and in 1641, on the introduction of the Grand Remonstrance, he and Hyde broke off from them, and joined the Court party. He then became Secretary of State. The national calamities deeply affected him, and he used to mutter in his mournful moods the words, "Peace, peace!" He was killed in the Battle of Newbury in 1643.

Fox, Charles James, statesman and orator, born 1749. He was third son of Lord Holland, and entered the House of Commons at nineteen. His first speech was made against allowing Mr. Wilkes to take his seat (1769). He was for a short time a member of Lord North's Ministry; but, in 1774, he went

into Opposition, and joined Burke in denouncing the coërcive policy adopted towards the North American Colonists. In 1782, he joined the Rockingham Ministry as Secretary of State; but on Rockingham's death he withdrew, and in 1783 helped the Tories to turn out the Shelburne Ministry. Fox and North then formed a coälition Ministry, which lasted only a few months. Fox then sought rest in foreign travel. On the outbreak of the French Revolution, he sympathized with the demands of the French people for liberty. This led to a breach with Burke, who violently denounced the Revolution. For some years afterwards Fox lived in retirement, collecting materials for his *History of the Reign of James II.* On the death of Pitt in January 1806, Fox and Grenville formed a Ministry. Fox induced the House of Commons to pass resolutions abolishing the slave-trade. He also contemplated a peace with France; but he died in September 1806.

Frobisher, Sir Martin, navigator and naval hero, born in the early part of the sixteenth century. His great ambition was to discover a North-West passage, and he made three expeditions to the Arctic Regions of North America. Some articles, believed to have been left there by him, were discovered in 1862. In 1587 he served under Drake in the West Indies, and in the following year had a share in the defeat of the Armada. He was killed in 1594.

Gardiner, Stephen, Bishop of Winchester, born 1483. He was for a time Wolsey's secretary, and he was sent to Rome to ask for the Pope's sanction to Henry the Eighth's divorce from Catherine. After the accession of Edward VI., he opposed the Reformation, and was imprisoned till the end of the reign. Mary released him, and restored him to his see. In 1553 he became Lord Chancellor and Prime Minister, and as such sanctioned the severe measures adopted against the Protestants. He died in 1555.

Graham, John, of Claverhouse, Viscount Dundee, Scottish Royalist soldier, born 1650. He served in France and Holland for some years. In 1677 he returned to Scotland, and took the command of a troop of horse raised to put down the Covenanters. He carried on this work with cruel energy and heartlessness for several years; and his services were rewarded by a peerage, with the title Viscount Dundee. He was defeated by the Covenanters at Drumclog, 1679. After the Revolution, he attempted a rising in Scotland on behalf of the Stewarts. His Highlanders repulsed the Royalist troops at Killiecrankie, but he was shot in the moment of victory, 1689.

Grenville, George, a prominent statesman, born 1712. He was a younger brother of Richard Grenville, Earl Temple, and he was a brother-in-law of the elder Pitt. After holding various subordinate posts, he was Prime Minister from 1763 till 1765. He began the famous contest with John Wilkes; and he introduced the Stamp Act, which led to the American War. He died in 1770. His third son, George, was Lord Grenville, and was Premier in 1806.

Grey, Lady Jane, born 1537. She was daughter of the Marquis of Dorset. Her mother was the daughter of Mary, the sister of Henry VIII., who first was Queen of France, and afterwards Duchess of Suffolk. She was equally remarkable for her amiability and her learning. She read Plato in the original Greek at fourteen. Dudley, Duke of Northumberland, effected a marriage between her and his son, Lord Guildford Dudley; and, professedly in the interests of Protestantism, he induced Edward VI. to name Lady Jane his heir, to the exclusion of his sisters, Mary and Elizabeth. On the King's death she was actually proclaimed Queen, though much against her will. Mary's party, however, prevailed. Northumberland was executed at once, and Lady Jane and her husband a short time afterwards,—the victims not of their own, but of Northumberland's ambition, 1554.

Grey, Earl, statesman and reformer, born 1764. He introduced the question

of Parliamentary Reform in the House of Commons in 1797, and he was Prime Minister when the Reform Act was passed in 1832. He also helped to abolish the slave-trade (1807), and to carry through the Roman Catholic Relief Act (1829). He died in 1845.

Hampden, John, patriot, born 1594. When ship-money was revived in 1634, Hampden resolved to test the legality of the tax by refusing to pay it. The case was tried in the Court of Exchequer, before twelve judges, who, being nominees of the Crown, declared the tax legal. The stand made by Hampden added greatly to his popularity, and gave strength to the party of resistance. He was one of the five members of the Long Parliament whom Charles I. tried to arrest in 1642. On the outbreak of the Civil War, Hampden took arms against the King, and was mortally wounded at Chalgrove-field, Oxfordshire, 1643.

Harley, Robert, Earl of Oxford, statesman of Queen Anne's time, born 1661. He was elected Speaker of Anne's first Parliament. In 1704 he joined Godolphin's Ministry, but in 1708 he left it and became a leader of the Tory Opposition. The unpopularity of the Whigs, increased by their prosecution of Sacheverell, led to a change of Government. A Tory Ministry was formed by Harley and St. John in 1710. On the conclusion of the Treaty of Utrecht, Harley was made Earl of Oxford. In 1714 St. John (Bolingbroke) drove him from office. In the following year, charged with intriguing with the Pretender, he was thrown into the Tower, where he remained two years. In 1717 he retired into privacy, and brought together the famous "Harleian Collection of MSS." He died in 1724.

Hastings, Warren, first Governor-General of India, born 1733. He went to India as a writer in the Civil Service in 1750. Having mastered several of the Indian languages, he was frequently employed on diplomatic missions, and became rich. In 1772 he was made President of the Supreme Council of Bengal. In 1773 (under Lord North's Regulating Act) he was made Governor-General of India. His government was one of great vigour. He organized the native states, subdued those that were hostile, and consolidated the English power in India. In 1785 he resigned and returned to England. He was charged with having abused his power and oppressed the native princes. His trial lasted seven years. In 1795 he was acquitted. He retired, with a pension from the East India Company, to the old seat of his family at Daylesford, and died there in 1818.

Howard, Charles, Lord Howard of Effingham, a distinguished admiral, born 1536. Though himself a Roman Catholic, he was Lord High Admiral of the English fleet that destroyed the Spanish Armada in 1588. He and the Earl of Essex destroyed a Spanish fleet in Cadiz harbour in 1596. He was then made Earl of Nottingham, and he and Essex were thenceforth rivals. (See *Essex.*) He commanded the army which put down Essex's abortive rebellion. He died in 1624.

Langton, Stephen, Archbishop of Canterbury, 1206 to 1228. He was previously Chancellor of the University of Paris. On the death of Archbishop Hubert in 1205, the Bishop of Norwich was nominated by the King. The Sub-Prior of Canterbury was nominated by the monks. The rivals appealed to the Pope, who rejected both, and appointed Langton. It was Langton that released King John from the Papal Interdict, and restored him to the throne; but he refused to excommunicate the barons who leagued against John. He even headed the league himself in demanding *Magna Charta* from the King, and was ever after a firm supporter of national liberty. Died 1228.

Laud, William, Archbishop, born 1573, at Reading, where his father was a clothier. While he was at Oxford his High Church leanings were well known. He was first a fellow and afterwards the president of his college. He was rapidly advanced to the offices of dean, prebendary, and bishop. In 1633 he was made Archbishop of Canterbury, and was regarded as the Prime Minister of the

King. His rule was high-handed and tyrannical. He used the Star Chamber Court against the Puritans in England, and he attempted to force Episcopacy on Scotland. By the Long Parliament he was thrown into the Tower along with Strafford (1641). He was condemned by Act of Attainder in 1644; and was beheaded, January 1645.

Leicester, Robert Dudley, Earl of, was a son of the Duke of Northumberland who was executed in 1553 for supporting Lady Jane Grey; born 1532. He was chief favourite of Queen Elizabeth, who from the beginning of her reign heaped honours and offices on him. She proposed to marry him to Mary Queen of Scots; but he seems to have aspired to Elizabeth's own hand. He has even been suspected of having poisoned his wife that he might be free to marry the Queen. He continued for many years to exercise unbounded influence over Elizabeth. In 1585 he went to the Protestant Netherlands as governor. In 1588 he was made lieutenant-general of the army at Tilbury, and he died in the same year.

Leslie, Alexander, Earl of Leven, Scottish general. He served under Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden. On the outbreak of the Civil War, he commanded the Scottish army of 20,000 men sent to support the Parliament. He shared in the victory of Marston Moor. It was to Leven that Charles I. surrendered at Newark, in 1646. Died 1661.

Leslie, David, Lord Newark, Scottish general. He served under Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden. He accompanied the Scottish army which entered England in 1644. When news of Montrose's successes arrived, he was sent to Scotland, and defeated Montrose decisively at Philiphaugh, 1645. He was defeated by Cromwell at Dunbar, in 1650; died 1682.

Marlborough, John Churchill, Duke of, general and statesman, born 1650. In youth, he gained great distinction abroad, especially when serving under Marshal Turenne. On his return to England, he was attached to the household of the Duke of York, and on James's accession was made Lord Churchill. He served James faithfully; but at the Revolution he went over to William, who created him Earl of Marlborough. He served next in the Low Countries and in Ireland; but William, suspecting his fidelity, sent him to the Tower. He was afterwards restored to favour. On the outbreak of the War of the Spanish Succession, he was made captain-general of the allied forces, and began that career of victory which has made his name famous. His great victories were Blenheim (1704), Ramilies (1706), Oudenarde (1708), and Malplaquet (1709). During these years he several times received the thanks of Parliament; and honours, titles, and riches were heaped on him. On his return to England, in 1711, he found that his influence at Court (maintained chiefly through his wife) had been undermined. He was charged with applying public money to private purposes, and was dismissed from all his offices. He lived abroad till the death of Queen Anne. He then returned, and was restored to his military appointments; but bodily weakness compelled him to withdraw from public life, and he died in 1722.

Mary Stewart, Queen of Scots, born 1542. She was daughter of James V. and Mary of Guise. Henry VIII. designed the union of the crowns by her marriage with his son Edward. The Scots preferred a French alliance. She was sent to France in 1548, and was married to the Dauphin in 1558. On his death she returned to Scotland (1561); but she had no sympathy with the Reformers, who were then in the ascendant. Her marriage with her cousin, Lord Darnley, displeased Elizabeth. Two years later, Darnley was murdered, and Mary married the Earl of Bothwell, who was suspected of being connected with the deed. The Protestant lords then raised an army against her. She surrendered to them at Carberry Hill, and was shut up in Lochleven Castle. Escaping thence, she was defeated at Langside, and then fled to England (1568). In 1586 a plot was discovered, having in view the death of Elizabeth, and the succession of Mary

to the throne. For her alleged share in this plot, Mary was executed at Fotheringay Castle, 1587.

Melbourne, William Lamb, Viscount, statesman, born 1779. He entered the House of Commons in 1805, and joined the Whigs. He was called to the House of Lords on the death of his father in 1828. He was the steady friend of reform, and succeeded Earl Grey as head of the Whig party in 1834. With the exception of three months, he was Prime Minister from 1834 till 1841; and holding that office at the accession of Queen Victoria, he acted, in a sense, as her political tutor. He died in 1848.

Milton, John, poet, born 1608. He spent his early life in study, in travel, in writing poetry, and in teaching. When the dispute arose between King and Parliament, he wrote pamphlets on the popular side. He was appointed Foreign Secretary to the Commonwealth in 1649. In 1654 he lost his eyesight. At the Restoration he was with some difficulty included in the Act of Indemnity. He then retired into obscurity, and wrote his great poems, *Paradise Lost* (1667) and *Paradise Regained* (1671). Died 1674.

Monk, George, Duke of Albemarle, military and naval commander, born 1608. At the beginning of the Civil War, he took the King's side; but he was taken prisoner, and was confined in the Tower till 1646. He was then released, on condition of his joining the army of the Parliament. He served both in Ireland and in Scotland; but he was generally suspected of intriguing with the Stewarts. On the resignation of Richard Cromwell, he entered London with 5,000 men, and declared for a free Parliament. This Parliament recalled Charles II. Monk was made Duke of Albemarle. In 1666 he and Prince Rupert gained a great naval victory over the Dutch, at the mouth of the Thames. Monk died in 1670.

Monmouth, James, Duke of, a natural son of Charles II., born 1649. He served for some time in France. In 1679 he was sent to Scotland to quell the Covenanters, and defeated them at Bothwell Bridge. Shaftesbury encouraged him with hopes of the crown, and in consequence of his intrigues he had to leave England. He went to Holland, but on Charles the Second's death, he landed at Lyme to claim the throne. He was defeated at Sedgemoor, was afterwards captured in a ditch, and was executed on Tower Hill, 1685.

Montagu, Charles, Earl of Halifax, statesman and poet, born 1661. While at Cambridge, he was a noted wit and clever versifier. He was the joint author (with Prior) of *The Town and Country Mouse*, a satire on Dryden's *Hind and Panther*. He attracted the notice of the Earl of Dorset, who became his patron. He entered Parliament, and soon became prominent as a Whig orator. Ere long he entered office, and proved one of the greatest finance ministers England has ever had. He was the originator of the National Debt, —of the plan, that is, of borrowing money on the national security. He adopted and carried out Paterson's proposal of a Bank of England. He was also the inventor of the window-tax, and of Exchequer bills,—accommodation notes issued by Government in anticipation of taxes, and bearing interest daily. In 1697 he became First Lord of the Treasury; but his vanity and arrogance cost him his popularity, and he soon resigned, and was called to the House of Lords as Baron Halifax. He was twice impeached by the Tories, but without success. On the accession of George I. he was made an earl, and again became Premier; but he died in the same year, 1715.

Montfort, Simon de, Earl of Leicester, was son of the Count de Montfort (a French soldier) who led the crusade against the Albigenses in 1209. His mother was an English lady, and he married a sister of Henry III. For some years he was the most powerful man in England. He headed the barons in their war against Henry, and he was the first to admit representatives from boroughs into Parliament. He was slain at the Battle of Evesham, in 1265.

Montrose, James Graham, Marquis of, a Royalist leader in Scotland

in the Civil War, born 1613. He completed his education in France. On his return to Scotland, he at first joined the Covenanters; but thinking himself slighted by them, he joined the King's party. He gained several battles for Charles; but his career was suddenly checked at Philiphaugh, by General David Leslie. He then went abroad. In 1650 he made a descent on the north of Scotland in behalf of Charles II., was captured, and hanged at Edinburgh.

More, Sir Thomas, succeeded Wolsey as Lord High Chancellor, born 1480. He was executed for denying the King's supremacy in the Church, 1535. He was author of *Utopia; or, the Perfect Society of a Happy Republic.*

Napier, Sir Charles James, soldier and administrator, born 1782. He fought in the Peninsular War, and in North America. In 1841 he went to India as commander-in-chief. In 1843 he conquered Sindh, and showed remarkable administrative powers in arranging its government. He died in 1853. Sir Charles John Napier, the admiral, was his cousin.

Nelson, Horatio, Viscount, England's greatest sailor, born 1758. He went to sea with his uncle in his twelfth year; and when only fifteen, he joined an expedition sent out to search for a North-West Passage. When the French War broke out, Nelson sailed to the Mediterranean as commander of the *Agamemnon.* He was appointed commodore in 1796, and helped to shatter the navies of France and her allies at St. Vincent (1797), the Nile (1798), Copenhagen (1801), and Trafalgar (1805), where he was killed.

Newton, Sir Isaac, the greatest of English Natural Philosophers, born near Grantham, 1642. He greatly distinguished himself while at Cambridge, and even began to invent new methods during his undergraduate course. Soon after taking his degree, he propounded his new theory of light and colours. On the outbreak of the plague, 1665, he retired to his native village; and while sitting in his garden the fall of some apples turned his thoughts to the law of gravitation, which was his greatest discovery. In 1687 he published his *Principia Mathematica.* He was next chosen to represent Cambridge in Parliament; and in 1695 he was made Warden of the Mint, of which he was afterwards Master. He was a man of a devout and religious spirit, and made a careful study of the prophecies of the Bible. He died in 1727.

O'Connell, Daniel, the great agitator for Irish independence, born 1775. He was admitted to the Irish bar in 1798, and distinguished himself by his violent public speeches against the Irish Union. In 1803 he took up the cause of Roman Catholic Emancipation, and devoted all his energies to it till it triumphed in 1829. From that time till 1843, he "agitated" incessantly for the Repeal of the Union. In that year he was convicted of sedition, but the interposition of the House of Lords prevented his imprisonment. Thenceforth his influence with his countrymen declined. He died at Genoa in 1847.

Palmerston, Henry Temple, Viscount, diplomatist and statesman, born 1784. He entered Parliament in 1806, and was made a junior Lord of the Treasury in 1807. In 1809, though only twenty-five, he became War Secretary. From 1809 till his death in 1865,—fifty-six years,—he was a member of every Administration with four exceptions,—the two headed by Sir Robert Peel, and the two headed by the Earl of Derby. He was War Secretary almost continuously from 1809 till 1830. He was Foreign Secretary in all the Liberal Ministries, from 1830 till 1852. He was Home Secretary from 1852 till 1855. He was twice Premier,—1855 till 1858, and 1859 till 1865,—when he died. He began public life as a Tory, but under the influence of Mr. Canning his views became more liberal. He advocated Roman Catholic Emancipation; but he at first opposed Parliamentary Reform.

Peel, Sir Robert, statesman, born 1788. At Oxford he took double first-class honours,—first in classics, and first in mathematics. He entered the House of Commons in 1809 as a Tory, and soon took a subordinate post in the Perceval Ministry. From 1812 till 1817

he was Chief Secretary for Ireland, where he organized the constabulary force. He was twice Home Secretary (1822 and 1828), and twice Prime Minister (1834 and 1841). He opposed Roman Catholic Emancipation as long as he could; but when he saw that the peace of the country was in danger, he gave way, and carried the Relief Act (1829). He opposed Parliamentary Reform. He at first opposed the repeal of the Corn Laws; but his opinions changed, and he carried the Repeal Act (1846). During his later years in office, he introduced many important fiscal and financial reforms. This implied an abandonment of his Tory policy, which alienated from him many of his supporters, and broke up his party. His followers, at first called Peelites, were ere long absorbed in the Liberal party. His opponents formed the Protectionist party, which in a few years assumed the name of Conservative. Peel died in 1850 from the effects of a fall from his horse.

Pitt, William, Earl of Chatham, statesman and orator, born 1708 He was for some time in the army, but in 1735 he entered Parliament, and distinguished himself by his bitter attacks on Walpole; which so much gratified the old Duchess of Marlborough, that she bequeathed him £10,000. He held subordinate offices in the Pelham Administrations till 1756, when he joined with the Duke of Devonshire in forming a short-lived Ministry. Both George II. and the Duke of Cumberland disliked Pitt, and he was dismissed in 1757; but it was found impossible to form a Ministry without him, and the King yielded. Pitt and the Duke of Newcastle formed a Ministry, of which Pitt was real head, 1757. While Pitt was in office Canada was conquered, and the English arms were successful in all parts of the world. In 1761 he resigned, because he advised a declaration of war against Spain, and his advice was rejected. He was recalled to office, along with the Duke of Grafton, in 1766, and was made Earl of Chatham. While Pitt was laid low by illness, his Chancellor of the Exchequer proposed the obnoxious taxes on exports to America, which afterwards led to war. Chatham resigned in 1768. He opposed the coërcive measures adopted against the colonists, but he equally opposed the recognition of their independence. While addressing the House of Lords on the latter subject in 1778, he fell in a convulsive fit, and died five weeks afterwards.

Pitt, William, the younger, statesman, born 1759. He was second son of the Earl of Chatham. He entered Parliament in 1780; and though only twenty-one years of age, he at once took rank with the foremost men in the House. In 1782, he became Chancellor of the Exchequer in Lord Shelburne's Ministry. Two years later he became Premier, though under twenty-five years of age. He continued in power for eighteen years. He concluded the Treaty of Versailles with France and the United States; remodelled the Government of India by erecting the Board of Control; concluded a commercial treaty with France; advocated abolition of the slave-trade, and Roman Catholic Emancipation; and united England and Ireland. During the French Revolution, he ruled with firmness and wisdom. As long as was possible, he maintained the strict neutrality of England; but when peace was broken, he prosecuted the war with energy, organizing several European coälitions against France. During his early career, he was an advocate of Parliamentary Reform; but the excesses of the French Revolution led him to abandon these views. In 1801, however, he proposed Roman Catholic Emancipation; the King objected, and Pitt resigned. He returned to power in 1804, agreeing to waive that question. He formed a third coälition against France, and gave a new impetus to the war, one result of which was the victory of Trafalgar. He died early in 1806, and was buried beside his father in Westminster Abbey.

Pym, John, statesman and Parliamentary leader, born 1584. He studied law, and early entered the House of Commons In 1626 he was one of the

managers of the impeachment of Buckingham; and in 1640 he led the attack which ended in the attainder both of Strafford and of Laud. His influence became so great, that he was familiarly called "King Pym." He died in 1643.

Ralegh, Sir Walter, navigator and author, born 1552. His gallantry, in throwing his velvet cloak over a muddy part of the road which the Queen had to pass, led to his introduction to Elizabeth, 1580. He attempted to colonize Virginia, but failed. He introduced the potato and tobacco into England. In 1603 he was thrown into the Tower, for taking part in the Main Plot. During a captivity of thirteen years he wrote his *History of the World.* In 1616 he was released, on promising to disclose a gold mine of which he knew in South America. His expedition failed, and excited the wrath of the Spanish Court; to please which Ralegh was executed on his former sentence, 1618.

Rupert, Prince, Royalist general in the Civil War, born 1619. He was son of Frederick, Elector Palatine, and Elizabeth, the daughter of James I. He was therefore nephew of Charles I., whose cause he espoused in the Civil War. He was impetuous and rash as a general. He was present at Marston Moor and at Naseby, and his surrender of Bristol was the closing act of the war. After the Restoration he had command of the fleet. He devoted his later years to scientific pursuits, and died in 1682.

Russell, William, Lord, a patriot and martyr for constitutional freedom, born 1639. To conciliate the Whigs, Charles II. made him a privy councillor in 1679. He strenuously opposed the succession of the Duke of York. In 1681 he carried the Exclusion Bill to the Lords at the head of 200 members of the House of Commons. He joined with Argyle, Essex, Howard, and others, in a plan to secure the succession of Monmouth on Charles's death. At the same time the Rye House Plot, for the assassination of Charles, was discovered. In this Russell was unjustly accused of taking part, and was executed, 1683

Shaftesbury, Anthony Ashley Cooper, Earl of, statesman in the time of Charles II., born 1621. He entered Parliament in his twentieth year (1640), and joined the Court party. In 1643 he abandoned the royal cause and became a leader on the popular side. He sat in Barebone's Parliament (1653); but after the death of Cromwell he joined Monk in bringing about the Restoration. Charles II. made him Baron Ashley and Chancellor of the Exchequer. He was a member of the Cabal Ministry, and in 1672 was made Lord Chancellor and Earl of Shaftesbury. James, Duke of York, who had become his enemy, obtained his dismissal in 1673; he then went into Opposition. In 1679 he returned to power, and was President of Sir William Temple's Council of Thirty. (See *Temple.*) He was the chief author of the Habeas Corpus Act. Through York's influence he was again dismissed, and spent the rest of his public life in trying to exclude the Duke from the succession, and to secure it for the Duke of Monmouth. (See *Monmouth.*) In 1681 he was charged with high treason, but was acquitted. He fled to Holland, and died at Amsterdam, 1683.

Sidney, Algernon, patriot and martyr for constitutional freedom, born 1620. He was a son of the second Earl of Leicester. He fought in the Parliamentary army in the Civil War, and was made Governor of Dover. He was appointed one of the judges to try Charles I.; but he neither was present nor signed the warrant of execution. During the Commonwealth he lived in retirement, and wrote his *Discourses on Government,* in which he declared himself a Republican. He went abroad at the Restoration, but he returned in 1667, on receiving a pardon. In 1683 he was falsely accused of being concerned in the Rye House Plot, and was executed along with Lord William Russell.

Sidney, Sir Philip, soldier and author, born 1554. He was nephew of Leicester (see *Leicester*), Queen Elizabeth's favourite. Elizabeth employed Sidney on various missions abroad, and

she called him "the jewel of her dominions." She would not allow him to accept of the crown of Poland. He accompanied Leicester to the Netherlands, and was mortally wounded in a skirmish near Zutphen, 1586. His chief works are, *Acadia*, a romance; and the *Defence of Poesie*.

St. John, Henry, Viscount Bolingbroke, political writer and statesman, born 1678. In 1704 he became Secretary at War; but in 1708 he went into Opposition with Harley, whom he joined in abusing Marlborough. He went into office with Harley in 1710; but ere long he began to intrigue against him, and in 1714 succeeded in driving him from power. In 1715 he fled to France, being deep in the Pretender's schemes. He then became James's chief adviser. He returned to England in 1723, and although excluded from Parliament, exercised great political influence. He was a bitter opponent of Sir Robert Walpole; died 1751.

Strafford, Thomas Wentworth, Earl of, statesman in the time of Charles I., born 1593. In the early part of the struggle between the Crown and the Commons he was a leader on the popular side. This, however, is supposed to have been due to his dislike of the Duke of Buckingham, who was the King's chief adviser. Shortly after the Duke's death, Wentworth was gained over to the Court, was made Earl of Strafford, and was appointed President of the Council of York, and afterwards Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland. There he put in operation the system of "thorough" despotism, which he recommended Charles to adopt in England. While the King ruled without a Parliament, Strafford became Charles's chief instrument in imposing illegal taxes. The Long Parliament passed a Bill of Attainder against him; Charles gave his assent, and he was executed on Tower Hill, May 1641.

Sunderland, Robert Spencer, Earl of, a well-known statesman, born 1641. He was Ambassador first in Spain, then in France. He next became Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs. Under James II. he was made Premier. To gain the favour of the King, he professed himself a Roman Catholic. This step made him so unpopular that he had to retire. On the accession of William III. he withdrew to Holland; but in two years he was recalled and taken into the royal favour; and, though not in office, he had much influence with the King. He was afterwards Lord Chamberlain for two years. He died in 1702.

Temple, Sir William, statesman and diplomatist in the time of Charles II. and James II., born 1628. He was Ambassador to the United Provinces, and brought about the Triple Alliance (England, Holland, and Sweden) in 1668, as well as the marriage of William of Orange and Mary. In 1679 he was appointed Secretary of State, and suggested the Council of Thirty appointed by the King. He resigned before the end of the year. He spent his later years in study and in gardening; but he was often consulted by the King's ministers, and by William III. in person. He died in 1690.

Walpole, Robert, Earl of Orford, statesman, born 1676. He entered Parliament in 1700; and in 1708, on the retirement of Harley and St. John, he joined the Ministry and became leader of the Whig party in the House of Commons. When the Tories returned to office he was voted guilty of corrupt practices, and expelled from the House. On the accession of George I., he returned to office with Halifax and the Whigs. In 1715 he became First Lord of the Treasury. In 1717 he went into Opposition again. In 1721 he was again Prime Minister, and held power, chiefly by means of skilful bribery, till 1742. On his retirement he was created Earl of Orford. He died in 1745.

Washington, George, soldier and patriot, first President of the United States, born 1732. He began his military career as major of Virginian militia, 1751. A few years later he retired from military service and became a senator. When, however, the War of Independence broke out (1775), he took the command of the colonial army. He conducted the war with consummate skill, as well as with vigour and humanity.

At the peace he retired into private life, but in 1789 he was elected first President of the United States; was re-elected, 1793; retired, 1797; died, 1799.

Wellington, Arthur Wellesley, Duke of, soldier and statesman, born 1769. He was third son of the Earl of Mornington. His military career began in India, where he gained the great victory of Assaye in 1803. In 1807 he entered Parliament, and became Secretary for Ireland. He was sent to Portugal in 1808, where he defeated Junot at Vimiera; but being dissatisfied with the subordinate position assigned him there, he returned home. He returned to the Peninsula the following year with the chief command, and began that brilliant series of victories by which the French were gradually driven out of Spain, 1814. In the following year he defeated Napoleon decisively at Waterloo. He then entered on a new career, as a statesman. He became Prime Minister in 1828. He was at first opposed to Roman Catholic Emancipation, but he withdrew his opposition, and carried through Parliament the Act of 1829. He was also opposed to Reform, and resigned in 1830, when he found he had lost his majority in the Commons. He attempted to form a Tory Ministry in 1832, and failed. He and about one hundred Tory peers absented themselves from the House, to allow the Reform Bill to pass. He continued the trusted adviser of the Queen till his death in 1852.

Wilberforce, William, philanthropist, born 1759. When a school-boy of fourteen, he wrote a letter to a York newspaper denouncing the "traffic in human flesh." Having inherited a large fortune, he resolved, about 1788, to devote his life to Negro Emancipation. Year after year for twenty years he pressed the cause on the attention of Parliament, and aided it by his purse and his pen. He died in 1833, shortly after slavery had been abolished in all the British Colonies. His son Samuel became Bishop, first of Oxford, and afterwards of Winchester.

Wolfe, James, a celebrated soldier, born 1726. He served his apprenticeship to arms in Germany during the War of the Austrian Succession, 1740–48. In 1758 he was appointed Colonel of the 67th Regiment, which distinguished itself so greatly at Minden. In 1759 he was selected by Pitt to command the expedition against Quebec, and he died on the Plains of Abraham in the moment of victory.

Wolsey, Thomas, Archbishop of York, Cardinal, and Lord High Chancellor of England, born at Ipswich 1474; said to have been a butcher's son. He carried out with great success and expedition a mission to the Emperor Maximilian with which Henry VII. intrusted him. He encouraged Henry VIII. in his love of gaiety and splendour, and acquired great influence over him. He was made successively Dean and Bishop of Lincoln, Archbishop of York, Cardinal, and Papal Legate. In 1515 he became Lord Chancellor. The great object of his ambition was the Papal Chair. For this prize he intrigued alternately with the Emperor Charles V. and with the King of France, but without success. Henry's proposed divorce placed him in a difficulty. He could not oppose it without offending Henry; he could not promote it without offending the Emperor, who was Queen Catherine's nephew. He played a double part. The King discovered this, and degraded him, 1529. Next year he was arrested for treason; but he died at Leicester Abbey, on his way to London, 1530.

Wyclif, John, commonly called "the morning-star of the Reformation," born 1324. He was made Warden of Canterbury Hall, Oxford, in 1365; but his hostility to the monks led to his removal. He was afterwards made Rector of Lutterworth, Leicestershire. He was summoned before the Bishop of London on a charge of heresy; but, being accompanied by John of Gaunt, he was allowed to go unpunished. He translated the Bible into English; and died at Lutterworth, 1384.

APPENDIX *D.*

PRONUNCIATION OF PROPER NAMES.

Ag'-in-court (*Azh'-in-koor*).
Aix-la-cha-pelle'.
A-len'-çon (*A-lang'-song*).
An'-ge-vin.
An-jou' (*Ang-zhoo'*).
An'-selm.
An'-to-nine.
A-qui-taine' (*Ak-we-tain'*).
Ar-ras' (*-rah'*).
Au-gus'-tine.
Bay-eux' (*-yuh'*).
Beau-je' (*Bo-zhay'*).
Beau-vais' (*Bo-vay'*).
Bo-a-di-ce'-a.
Bor-deaux' (*-doe'*).
Bou-logne' (*-lon'*).
Bourges (*Boorzh*).
Bou-vines' (*-veen'*).
Bre-tagne' (*-tan'*).
Bret-ign'-y (*-een'-ye*).
Cá'-en (*Kä'-en*, or *Kang*).
Cal'-ais (*Kal'-lis*, or *Kal'-ay*).
Cam-peg'-gio (*-ped'-jio*).
Cam-ul-o-du'-num.
Ca-nute' (*noot'*).
Cas-si-vel-au'-nus.
Cei'-es-tine (*-tin*).
Cha-luz' (*Sha-looz'*).
Charl'-e-magne (*Sharl'-ë-main*).
Chi'-non (*She'-nong*).
Clau'-di-us.
Com-pi-ègne' (*-ain'*).
Con'-stan-tine.
Cre-vant' (*Kray-vang'*).
Dane'-lagh (*-law*).
De Ruy'-ter (*Roi'-ter*).
Dev-e-reux' (*-ruh'*).
Du-quesne' (*-kain'*).
Es-ta'-ples (*E-tah'-p'l*).
Eves'-ham (*Eevz'-am*).
Fe'-camp (*Fay'-kang*).
Fon-te-vraud' (*-vro'*).
Gal'-ga-cus.
Ger'-be-roi (*Zher'-b'rwa*).
Gra-na'-da.
Gui-enne' (*Gē-en'*).
Guine'-gate (*Geen'-gate*).
Guise (*Geeze*).
Haar'-lem.
Ha'-dri-an.
Hai'-nault (*Hay'-no*).
Her'-e-ward.
Ho-no'-ri-us.
Hu'-gue-nots (*Hue'-g'no*).
Je'-na (*Yea'-na*).
Kirk-cud'-bright (*Kir-koo'-bray*).
La Haye Sainte (*La Hay Saingt*).
La Hogue' (*Hoag'*).
L'Ai-gle (*Lay'-g'l*).
Lan'-franc.
Lan'-gue-doc (*Lañ'-ge-doak*).
Leof'-ric (*Lef'-ric*).
Li-ège' (*Lee-aizh'*).
Li-moges' (*Lee-moazh'*).
Li-mou-sin' (*Lee-moo-sang'*).
Lol'-li-us Ur'-bi-cus.
Lou'-vre (*Loo'-v'r*).
Mal-plaq'-uet (*-plak'-ay*).
Meaux (*Mo*).
Mire'-beau (*Meer'-bo*).
Mo-non-ga-hē'-la.
Mor-laix' (*-lay'*).
Moul'-mein (*-mean*).
Näse'-by.
Nas'-sau (*-so*).
Nim'-e-guen (*Neem'-e-gen*).
Pal-la'-di-us.
Pau-li'-nus.
Pec-quign'-y (*Pe-keen'-ye*).
Poi'-te-vin (*P'wa'-te-vang*).
Poi-tiers' (*Poi-teerz'*, or *P'wa'-tyea*).
Poi-tou' (*P'wa-too'*).
Pro-vence' (*-vangs'*).
Pun'-jab (*-jaub*).
Quatre-bras' (*Katr-brah'*).
Ra'-legh (*Ral'-lay*, or *Raw'-lay*).
Re'-nè (*Ray'-nay*).
Rheims (*Reems*, or *Rangz*).
Roche'-fort (*Roash'-for*).
Ro-chelle' (*-shell'*).
Rou-en' (*-ang'*).
Rou'-ve-rai (*-vray*).
Rÿs'-wick (*Risé'-ik*).
Sa-chev'-er-ell (*-shev'-*)
Saintes (*saingt*).
Saw'-tre (*So'-tray*).
Scone (*Skoon*).
Se-bas'-to-pol (*-vas'-*).
Se-ve'-rus.
Sikh (*Seek*).
Sindh (*Sinn'd*).
Singh (*Sing*).
Sluys (*Slooz*).
St. He-le'-na.
Sue-to'-ni-us.
Taille'-bourg (*Tale'-boorg*)
Ten'-che-brai.
Tic-on-der-o'-ga.
Tra-fal'-gar.
Troyes (*Tr'wah*).
Ty'-ern-steign. (*Tee'-ern-steen*).
Ulm (*Oolm*).
Va-len'-ti-a.
Van'-dyck (*-dike*).
Ver-neu-il' (*Ver-nuh-ee'*).
Vor'-ti-gern.
Wal'-cher-en.
Wit-en-a-ge-mot' (*-moat'*).

INDEX TO PART I.

Acre, 115.
Æthelbert, 42.
Æthelfied, 53, 56.
Æthelred I., 51.
Æthelred II., 58.
Æthelstan, 57.
Agincourt, Battle of, 165.
Agricola, 25.
Albigenses, 119.
Alcuin, 74.
Aldhelm, 74.
Alfred the Great, 52, 54, 74.
Alfric, 75.
Alnwick Castle, 90, 113.
Andrea Doria, 212.
Anglians, 37.
Anjou, 96, 110.
Anne Boleyn, 208, 214, 215.
Anne of Cleves, 217.
Anselm, 92, 93, 94.
Antoninus, 26.
Armada, Spanish, 237.
Arras, Congress of, 170.
Arthur of Bretagne, 117.
Articles of Reform, 223.
Articles of Religion, 222, 230.
Asser, 74.
Assize, Grand, 104.
Assize of Arms, 113.
Athelney, 53.
Augsburg, Diet, 212.
Augustine, 42.
Augustus, 31.

Babington, Antony, 236.
Bacon, Lord, 251.
Badon, Mount, 38.
Baliol, John, 134.
Ball, John, 151.
Bannockburn, Battle, 137.
Barbour, John, 158.
Barnet, Battle of, 177.
Barons, 97, 149.
Beaufort, Cardinal, 168.
Becket, 110, 111.
Bede, 74.
Bedford, Regent, 168.
Belisarius, 40.
Benevolences, 186.
Bernicia, 38.
Bible, The Great, 216.
Black Prince, 143–150.
Bloreheath, Battle of, 174.
Boadicea, 25.
Bonner, Bishop, 227.
Bosworth-field, 190.
Bouvines, Battle of, 120.
Bramham Moor, Battle, 161
Brenville, Battle of, 95.
Bretigny, Treaty of, 147.
Bruce, Robert, the elder, 134.
Bruce, Robert, the younger, 136.
Brunanburh, Battle of, 57.
Buckingham, Duke of, 188.
Burgh, Hubert de, 126, 127.
Burgundy, Circle of, 226.

Cabot, Sebastian, 198.
Cade, Jack, 173.
Caedmon, 74.
Caesar, Julius, 23, 30.
Calais, 146, 229.
Caledonia, 27.
Calendar, correction, 242.
Calvin, John, 212.
Cambray, League, 202.
Campeggio, 209.
Canute, 59, 61.
Capet, Hugh, 61.
Carlovingians, 49.
Castles, Baronial, 97, 105.
Catherine Howard, 218.
Catherine of Aragon, 198, 208.
Catherine Parr, 218.
Caxton, William, 179–181, 184.
Cecil, William, Lord Burleigh, 230, 233.
Celts, 21.
Chaluz, Siege of, 117.
Charlemagne, 47, 50.
Charles V., Emperor, 204, 207, 212, 226.
Charter of Forests, 124, 126.
Charter, The Great, 119–124.
Charter of Liberties, 93.
Chaucer, 157.
Christ, Jesus, 31, 32.
Christianity, 27, 41.
Chronicle, English, 108.
Cid, Roderigo, 100.
Cinque Ports, 88.
Circuits of Justice, 113.
Clarence, Duke of, 177, 187
Clarendon, Constitutions of, 111.
Claudius, 24.
Cloth of Gold, 204.
Clovis, 40.
Cobham, Lord, 163.
Columba, 42.
Columbus, Christopher, 198–201.
Commission, Court of High, 235.
Commons, House of, 129, 162, 240.
Constantine, 28.

Constantinople, 33, 171, 172, 179.
Coverdale, Miles, 216.
Cranmer, Thomas, 213, 229, 250.
Creçy, 144.
Crespy, Peace of, 221.
Crevant, Battle of, 168.
Cromwell, Thomas, 213, 218.
Crusades, 93, 100, 101, 115, 117, 119, 132.
Curfew, 87.
Czar, First, 179.

Danegeld, 58.
Danelagh, 54.
Danes, 51.
Darnley, Lord, 231.
David I., 97.
Days of the Week, Names of, 73.
Deira, 38, 43.
Dermot of Leinster, 112.
Despenser, Hugh le, 138.
Domesday Book, 87.
Douglas, Gawain, 251.
Drake, Sir Francis, 238.
Dudley, Edmund, 197, 198.
Dudley, Guildford, 224, 227.
Dunbar, William, 251.
Dunstan, 57.
Dürer, Albert, 251.
Dutch Republic, 235

East Anglia, 38, 61.
Edinburgh, 46.
Edington, Battle of, 53.
Edith-Matilda, 94.
Edmund, 51.
Edmund II. (Ironside), 59.
Education, 249.
Edward I., 130–136.
Edward II., 136–138.
Edward III., 138–151.
Edward IV., 176–187.
Edward V, 187, 188.
Edward VI., 219–225.
Edward, Black Prince, 143–150.
Edward, Confessor, 65.
Edward the Ætheling, 67, 83, 84, 93.
Edward the Elder, 55, 56.
Edwin of Deira, 45, 46.
Edwin, Earl of Mercia, 67, 79, 83, 84.
Egbert, 47.
Egfrith, 47.
Eldermen, 70.
Eleanor of Castile, 130.
Elizabeth of York, 189.
Elizabeth, Queen, 227, 230–240.
Elizabeth Woodville, 177
Ellandune, 47.
Emma, 63, 65.
Empson, 197, 198.
England, 37.
Erasmus, 243.
Erigena, John Scotus, 74.
Essex, Robert, Earl of, 239.
Estaples, Peace of, 195.
Evesham, Battle of, 129.

Falkirk, 135.
Ferdinand of Spain, 201.
Feudal System, 86.
Fisher, Bishop, 214.
Five Boroughs, 54.
Flambard, 92, 94.
Flavia Caesariensis, 27.
Flodden, Battle of, 199.
Florence, 221.
Forest Laws, 88.
Fotheringay Castle, 236.
Fox, Bishop, 190.
Foxe, John, 228, 250.
Francis I., 203.
French Wars, 142, 164, 186, 199.

Galgacus, 25.
Gâma, Vasco de, 201.
Gardiner, Bishop, 223, 227
Gascoigne, Chief Justice, 162.
Gaveston Piers, 136.
Geneva, 242.
Geoffrey of Anjou, 96.
Geoffrey of Monmouth, 108.
Gildas, 74.
Glendower, Owen, 160.
Gloucester, Humphrey Duke of, 138.
Gloucester, Richard III., 187.
Gloucester, Robert Earl of, 98.
Godwin, 62, 65.
Gower, John, 157.
Granada, 201.
Grey, Lady Jane, 225, 227.
Guelphs and Ghibelines, 91, 101.
Guinegate, Battle of, 199
Gunpowder, 141.
Gustavus Vasa, 212.
Guthrum, 51.

Hadrian, 26.
Halidon Hill, Battle, 139.
Hapsburg, 132.
Hardicanute, 63.
Harfleur, Siege of, 165.
Harold I., 63.
Harold II., 66, 68, 82.
Harold Hardrada, 68.
Haroun-al-Raschid, 50.
Hasting, 55.
Hatfield, Battle of, 46.
Hedgeley Moor, Battle of, 176.
Hengest, 36.
Hengest's Down, Battle of, 51.
Henry I., 93, 96.
Henry II., 99, 110, 114.
Henry III., 126, 130.
Henry IV, 160–162.
Henry V, 162–168.
Henry VI., 168–176, 178.
Henry VII., 190–198.
Henry VIII., 198–219.
Henry IV., Emperor, 91.
Henry V., Emperor, 96.
Henry VI, Emperor, 116.
Henry, Bishop of Winchester, 96.
Henry of Huntingdon 108.
Henryson, Robert, 251.
"Heptarchy" (Note), 37.
Hereford, Duke of, 158.
Heretics, Statute of, 160.
Hereward, 85.
Herrings, Battle of, 169.
Hexham, Battle of, 177.
Hildebrand, 91.
Holbein, Hans, 251.

Homildon Hill, Battle of, 161.
Hooker, Richard, 250.
Hooper, Bishop, 228.
Horsa, 36.
Hotspur, 161.
Howard, Henry, 219, 250.
Howard of Effingham, 237.
Huguenots, 231.
Huns, 34.
Huss, John, 164.

"Ich Dien," 145.
Iconoclasts, 49.
Inquisition, 233.
Investiture, 94.
Ireland, 112.

James I. of Scotland, 161, 184.
James IV. of Scotland, 197.
Jane Seymour, 216.
Janissaries, 148.
Jerome of Prague, 164.
Jerusalem, 100, 118, 132, 206.
Jesuits, 233.
Jews, 201.
Joan of Arc, 169.
John, 116, 126.
Justinian, 40.
Jutes, 37.

Kent, 38; Maid of, 214.
Kentigern, 41.
Ket, 223.
King, Meaning of, 69.
Knights, 102.

Labourers, Statute of, 146.
Lanfranc, 85, 88, 89.
Langton, Stephen, 120, 121, 127.
Latimer, 228.
Layamon, 157.
League, Holy, 241.
Leicester, Earl of, 239.
Leo X., 201, 204.
Leofric, 62.
Leonardo da Vinci, 251.
Lepanto, 233.
Lewes, Mise of, 129.
Lincoln, Battles, 98, 126.
Lincoln (de la Pole), 190.
Lindisfarne, 45.
Lisbon, 202.
Llewelyn, 133.
Lollards, 152, 163.
Lollius Urbicus, 26.
London, 78, 83, 96, 113.
Longland, William, 157.
Lords Ordainers, 137.
Lorraine, 226.
Lothian, 58.
Louis XII., 202.
Louis the Dauphin, 125.
Lovel, Lord, 192.
Luther, Martin, 204, 206.
Lydgate, John, 184.

Macbeth, 66.
Madrid, 233; Treaty, 206.
Maid of Norway, 133.
Maintenance, 194.
Malcolm III. of Scotland, 62, 84, 90.
Malta, 207.
Mamelukes, 206.
Mandeville, John, 157.
Manning, Robert, 157.
Margaret of Anjou, 170.
Margaret of Scotland, 85.
Margaret Tudor, 197.
Marlow, Christopher, 250.
Mary I., 225–229.
Mary Queen of Scots, 227, 230, 231, 237.
Matilda of Boulogne, 17.
Maud, 98.
Maximilian, 20.
Mayors of the Palace, 48.
Medici, Lorenzo de, 201.
Mercia, 38, 47, 57, 61.
Mexico, 207.
Middlesex, 38.
Mogul Empire, 207.
Mohammed, 48.
Monasteries, 74, 215.
Monopolies, 240.
Mons Grampius, Battle of, 25.
Montfort, Simon de, the elder, 119.
Montfort, Simon de, the younger, 128.
Moors in Spain, 91, 132, 141 201.
Morcar, Earl, 67, 79, 83, 84.
More, Sir Thomas, 211, 214, 250.
Mortimer, Lord, 138, 139
Mortimer's Cross, 176.
Morton, Archbishop, 190
Mowbray, Robert, 92.

Nantes, Edict of, 242.
Navarrete, Battle of, 147
Nectansmere, 47.
Nero, 24.
Nesbit Moor, Battle, 161
Netherlands, 233.
Nevil's Cross, Battle, 146
Ninian, 41.
Nonconformists, 235.
Norfolk, Duke of, 158.
Norfolk, Duke of, 219, 227, 232.
Normandy, 56, 167.
Norsemen, 51, 56.
Northallerton, Battle, 97
Northampton, Battle, 174; Treaty, 139.
Northumberland (Dudley), Duke of, 224, 225.
Northumbria, 38, 46, 57, 58, 61.
Norwich, Bridal of, 88.
Nottingham, Countess of, 239.

Odo, 84, 88, 89.
Offa, 47.
Ordeal, Trial by, 71.
Orleans, Siege of, 168.
Otterbourne, Battle of, 152.
Otto the Great, 60.
Ottoman Empire, 141.
Overlord, 46, 47, 57.
Oxford, Earl of, 197.
Oxford, Provisions of, 129.

Parliament, Constitution of, 136; Good, 149; Two Houses 149; Wonderful, 153.
Passau, Treaty of, 226.
Paul, the Apostle, 32.
Paulinus, 45.
Pavia, Battle of, 205, 207.
Peasants' War, 207.
Pecquigny, 186.
Pepin, 48.

Peru, 221.
Philip II. of France, 115, 116.
Philip III. of France, 142.
Philip IV. of France, 142.
Philip V. of France, 142.
Philip VI. of France, 142.
Philip II. of Spain, 226, 227.
Philippa of Hainault, 146.
Picts and Scots, 36.
Pinkie, Battle of, 220.
Plantagenet, Geoffrey, 96.
Poitiers, Battle of, 146
Poll Tax, 151.
Popes, Temporal Power of, 50.
Portugal, 242.
Poynings's Law, 196.
Praemunire, Statute of, 150, 232.
Printing, 179, 183.
Protestants, 213.
Provisors, Statute of, 150.
Prussia, 140, 176, 207

Queen, Meaning of, 69.

Ralegh, 250.
Raphael, 251.
Reeve, 71.
Reformation, 204, 222.
Richard I., 115–117
Richard II., 151–160.
Richard III., 188–190
Richmond, Earl of, 189.
Ridley, 228.
Rienzi, 148.
Robert of Gloucester, 157.
Robert of Normandy, 88.
Roches, Peter de, 127.
Rogers, Canon, 228.
Rolf the Ganger, 56, 60.
Roses, Wars of the, 174.
Rouverai, Battle of, 169.
Runnymede, 122.
Russia, 221, 242.

Sackville (Lord Buckhurst), 238, 250.
Saintes, Battle of, 128.
Saracens, 48, 91.
Savonarola, 201.
Sawtré, Rev. W., 161.
Saxons, 27, 37.
Schleswig-Holstein, 207.
Senlac Hill, Battle of, 79.
Severus, 27.
Shakespeare, 249, 250.
Shrewsbury, Battle of, 161.
Sicilian Vespers, 141.
Sidney, Sir Philip, 236, 249, 250.
Simnel, Lambert, 192.
Six Articles, 217.
Sluys, Battle of, 143.
Soissons, 40.
Somerset, Duke of, 219, 224.
Spenser, Edmund, 249, 250.
St. Albans, Battles of, 174, 176.
St. Bartholomew, 235, 241.
St. Brice's Day, 59.
Stamford Bridge, Battle of, 68.
Standard, Battle of, 97
Star Chamber, 194.
Stephen, 96.
Stigand, 83.
Stirling Bridge, Battle of, 135.
Stoke, Battle of, 193.
Stonehenge, 22.
Strathclyde, 57.
Straw, Jack, 151.
Strongbow, 112.
Suffolk, Duke of, 172.
Suffolk, Earl of, 153.
Supremacy, Act of, 234.
Sweyn, 59.
Switzerland, 141, 154.

Taillebourg, Battle, 128.
Tamerlane, 154, 164.
Tell, William, 141.
Tenchebrai, Battle of, 94.
Test Act, 232.
Teutonic Order, 118.
Tewkesbury, Battle, 178.
Thane, 70.
Titian, 251.
Tostig, 67, 68.
Trent, Council of, 233.
Troyes, Treaty of, 167.
Tudor, House of, 190, 191.
Turks, 90; take Constantinople, 179.
Tuscany, 233.
Tyler, Wat, 151.
Tyndale, Wm., 216, 250
Tyrone, Earl of, 239.

Uniformity, 232, 234.

Vandals, 34.
Venice, 141.
Verneuil, Battle of, 168.
Vikings, 36.
Villanage, 87, 182.
Vortigern, 37

Wakefield, Battle of, 174.
Wales, 133, 215; First Prince of, 133; (North), 38; (West), 38.
Wallace, William, 135.
Warbeck, Perkin, 195.
Warwick, Dudley Earl of, 222.
Warwick, Edward Earl of, 190, 196.
Warwick, the King-maker, 177.
Wedmore, Peace of, 53.
Welsh, The, 38.
Wer-gild, 71.
Wessex, 38, 52, 61.
Whitgift, Archb., 235.
William I., 66, 68, 83–89
William II., 89–93.
William of Malmesbury, 108.
William of Orange, 233, 235.
William "the Ætheling," 95.
William the Lion, 113.
Winchester, 84, 100, 113.
Witchcraft, 248.
Witena-gemot, 71.
Wolsey, Thomas, 203–211.
Wyatt, Sir Thomas, 227.
Wyclif, John, 150, 152, 157.

York, Richard Duke of, 172.
York, Richard Duke of, son of Edward IV., 187, 189.

Zutphen, 236.
Zwingle, 207.

INDEX TO PART II.

Aberdeen, Earl of, 482.
Abhorrers, 313.
Aboukir, Battle of, 427.
Abraham, Plains of, 394.
Abyssinian War, 511.
Acre, Siege of, 427, 472.
Act of Parliament, 505.
Addison, Joseph, 367, 403.
Adolphus, Gustavus, 263.
Adrianople, Peace of, 467.
Afghan War, 472.
African discovery, 496.
Aix-la-Chapelle, Treaty of, 384, 386.
Alabama, The, 510.
Alberoni, 367, 376.
Albert, Prince, 510, 519.
Albigenses, 295.
Albuera, Battle of, 447.
Alexandria, Battle of, 428.
Alfred the Great, 519.
Alliance, Grand, 349, 354.
Alliance, Quadruple, 367, 376.
Alliance, Triple, 307.
Alma, Battle of the, 485.
Almanza, Battle of, 352.
Alsace, 315, 415, 516.
American War of Independence, 404; Civil War, 515.
Amiens, Treaty of, 433, 441.
Anne, Queen, 325, 350–361.
Anselm, 519.
Anson, Commodore, 374, 519.
Argyle, Earl of, 317, 519.
Argyle, Marquis of, 300, 519.
Armed Neutrality, 432.
Articles of Religion, 266
Ashantee War, 513.
Assize, Bloody, 320.
Atlantic Cable, 511.
Atterbury, Bishop, 371.
Aughrim, Battle of, 341.
Augsburg, League of, 328.
Augustine, 519.
Austerlitz, Battle of, 437, 441.
Australia, 481, 497, 507.
Austrian Succession, War of, 377, 385.
Austro-Sardinian War, 515.

Bacon, Francis, Lord, 257, 262, 519.
Badajoz, 447.
Bagdad, 271.
Baker, Sir Samuel, 500.
Balaklava, 485.
Ballot Act, 513.
Bank of England, 344.
Bank Restriction Act, 425
Barrosa, Battle of, 447
Batavian Republic, 440.
Baxter, Richard, 335.
Beaufort, Henry, 520
Beaumont, Francis, 334.
Becket, Thomas, 520.
Belgium, 467.
Benevolences, 265.
Berlin Decree, 438.
Bernadotte, 457.
Bible, English, 255.
Bill of Rights, 338.
Bishops, Trial of the Seven, 323.
Blake, Admiral, 292, 295.
Blenheim, Battle of, 351.
Board of Control, 420.
Bolingbroke (St. John) 356, 361, 371, 532.
Bombay, 301.
Bonner, Edmund, 520.
Boston Harbour, 407.
Bothwell Bridge, Battle of, 311.
Bourbons in Italy, 377.
Boyne, Battle of, 340.
Brazil, 314.
Breda Declaration, 299.
Brewster, Sir David, 499.
Brougham, Lord, 461, 520.
Brunel, Sir Mark I., 500.
Buckingham (Villiers), 257, 264, 265, 266.
Bunker Hill, Battle of, 408.
Bunyan, John, 301, 335.
Buonaparte. (*See* Napoleon I.)
Burdett, Francis, 445, 458.
Burke, Edmund, 413, 423, 429, 520.
Burmese Wars, 462, 481.
Burnet, Gilbert, 335.
Burns, Robert, 429.
Busaco, Battle of, 445.
Bute, Earl of, 396, 520.
Butler, Samuel, 335.
Bye Plot, 255.
Byng, Admiral, 367, 388.
Byron, Lord, 498.

Cabal, The, 308.
Cabinet, The, 347, 505.
Cabot, Sebastian, 520.
Calcutta, Black Hole of, 389.
Calendar, Correction of, 387

Cambridge, 321.
Cameronians, The, 312.
Cameron of Lochiel, 378.
Campbell, Sir Colin (Lord Clyde), 491, 522.
Campbell, Thomas, 498.
Camperdown, Battle of, 425.
Canada, 258, 396, 423, 471, 479, 507, 511, 513.
Canada, Rebellion in, 470.
Canning, George, 434, 445, 462, 521.
Canning, Viscount, 489.
Canute, the Great, 521.
Carey, Sir Robert, 253.
Carlowitz, Peace of, 354.
Carlyle, Thomas, 499.
Carnatic, 417.
Caroline, Queen, 461.
Carr, Robert (Somerset), 257.
Carthagena, 374.
Castlereagh, Viscount (Londonderry), 445, 462, 521.
Catesby, Robert, 256.
Catherine II. of Russia, 414.
Cato Street Conspiracy, 460.
Cavalier, 275.
Cawnpore, 489.
Caxton, William, 521.
Cecil, Robert (Salisbury), 257, 521.
Cecil, William (Burleigh), 521.
Cenis, Mont, Tunnel, 518.
Ceylon, 457, 508.
Chalgrove Field, Battle of, 280.
Chantrey, Francis, 500.
Charles I., 265; Trial, 285; Death, 287.
Charles II., 290, 299–317.
Charles XII. of Sweden, 354.
Charles Edward, Prince, 378–384.
Charlotte, Princess, 459.
Chartists, 471, 479.
Chatham, Lord (Pitt), 386, 411, 530.
Chinese War, 488.
Church, Conduct in, 401.
Churchill, John (*See* Marlborough).
Cintra, Convention of, 443.
Ciudad Rodrigo, 447.
Clarendon Code, 301.
Clergy, 331.
Clive, Robert, 389, 416, 522.
Clonmel, 290.
Cobbett, William, 458.
Cobden, Richard, 510, 522.
Coffee-houses, 330, 399.
Coke, Edward, 264, 522.
Coleridge, S. T., 498.
Collingwood, Admiral, 435.
Colonies, Government of, 506.
Colonies, List of, 509.
Columbus, 522.
Commercial Crisis, 462, 511.
Commission, Court of Ecclesiastical, 320.
Commission, Court of High, 267, 273.
Commons, Ascendency of the, 360.
Commons, House of, 502.
Commonwealth, The, 289.
Communists in Paris, 517.
Compton (Earl of Wilmington), 375.
Constitution, British, 502.
Conventicle Act, 301.
Conventicles, 305.
Conventions, 298, 326.
Cook, Captain, 418.
Cooke, W. Fothergill, 500.
Cope, Sir John, 378.
Copenhagen, 432, 438.
Corn Laws, 458, 471, 473, 476.
Cornwallis, Lord, 412, 420.
Corporation Act, 300, 463.
Corsica, 415.
Corunna, Battle of, 444.
Covenanters, 311.
Covenant, National, 269.
Covenant, Solemn League and, 282.
Coverdale, Miles, 522.
Cowell, Dr., 259
Cowper, William, 430.
Cranmer, Thomas, 523.
Crimea, 415; War in, 484.
Cromwell, Henry, 304.
Cromwell, Oliver, 280, 283, 290, 294, 296, 523.
Cromwell, Richard, 296.
Cromwell, Thomas, 523.
Culloden Moor, Battle of, 382.
Culpeper, 274.

Dalrymple (Stair), 342, 523.
Danby, Earl of, 309, 310.
Darien Scheme, 345.
Davy, Sir Humphry, 500.
Debt, National, 456, 343.
Declaration of Right, 326
Defoe, Daniel, 403.
Delhi, 489.
Derby, Earl of, 477, 481, 491, 511.
De Ruyter, 292.
Dettingen, Battle of, 378.
Devonshire, Duke of, 388
De Witt, 314.
Dickens, Charles, 499.
Disraeli, Mr., 481, 511, 513.
Dover, Treaty of, 307.
Drake, Francis, 523.
Dress, 332, 400.
Drogheda, Sack of, 290.
Drumclog, Battle of, 311.
Drummond, William, 334.
Dryden, John, 335.
Dunbar Drove, 291.
Dunkirk, Surrender of, 295.
Dunstan, 523.

Ecclesiastical Titles Bill, 481.
Edgehill, Battle of, 280.
Education in Eighteenth Century, 401.
Education Act, English, 512; Scottish, 513.
Eliot, George, 499.
Eliot, John, 260, 524.
Emancipation of Slaves, 468.
Emancipation, Roman Catholic, 429, 434, 461, 463.

Emmet, Robert, 434.
Employers and Workmen, 514.
Essex, Earl of, 524.
Essex, Earl of (son), 280, 524.
Excise Bill, Walpole's, 373.
Exclusion Bill, 313.
Exhibition, Great, 480.

Fairfax, 283, 524.
Falkirk, Battle of, 381.
Falkland, Viscount, 274, 524.
Family Compact, 396.
Farmers, 331.
Fawkes, Guy, 256.
Fayette, Marquis de la, 411.
Fenianism, 511.
Feudal System, 299.
'Fifteen, The, 365.
Fiji Islands, 513.
Finch, Speaker, 266.
Fire of London, Great, 302.
Five Members impeached, 275.
Five Mile Act, 301.
Flaxman, John, 499.
Fletcher, John, 334.
Fontenoy, Battle of, 378.
'Forty-five, The, 378–384.
Fox, Charles James, 418, 437, 524.
Fox, George, 296.
France, Commercial Treaty with, 510.
Franco-Prussian War, 516.
Franklin, Dr., 407.
Frederick, Prince of Wales, 374, 387.
Frederick the Great, 415.
Free Trade, 461.
Frobisher, Martin, 525.
Fronde, Wars of, 288.
Fuentes d'Onoro, 447.

Gainsborough, Thomas, 430.
Gardiner, Bishop, 525.
Gardiner, Colonel, 378.
George I., 361–372.
George II., 372–396.
George III., 396–460.
George IV., 460–463.
Germanic Confederation, 457.
Germany, 258, 517.
Ghent, Peace of, 450.
Gibbon, Edward, 429.
Gibraltar, 351, 412.
Gladstone, Mr. W. E., 482, 511.
Glencoe, Massacre of, 341.
Gloucester, Siege of, 280.
Godolphin, Earl of, 350, 359.
Goldsmith, Oliver, 429.
Gordon Riots, 418.
Grafton, Duke of, 371.
Graham of Claverhouse, 339, 525.
Gray, Thomas, 403.
Grenville, Hon. George, 405, 525.
Grenville, Lord, 437.
Grey, Earl, 437, 464, 479, 525.
Grey, Lady Jane, 525.
Grub Street, 402.
Gunpowder Plot, 256.

Habeas Corpus Act, 310.
Halifax (Charles Montagu), Earl, 346, 361, 528.
Halifax (George Savile), Marquis, 310, 313.
Hallam, Henry, 499.
Hampden, John, 268, 274, 280, 526.
Hampton Court Conference, 255.
Harley (Earl of Oxford), 353, 356, 358, 359, 361, 526
Haselrig, Arthur, 276, 300.
Hastings, Warren, 417, 420, 526.
Havelock, Sir Henry, 490.
Hemans, Felicia, 498.
Henrietta-Maria, 265.
Henry, Death of Prince, 257.
Hogarth, William, 403.
Hohenlinden, Battle of, 431.
Holland, Wars with, 292, 301, 308, 315; Revolution in, 314.
Hollis, Denzil, 276.
Holstein, 415, 516.
Holy Places, 483.
Hotham, 279.
Howard of Effingham, 526.
Hubertsburg, Peace of, 405.
Hull, 279.
Hume, David, 403.
Hungary, 493.
Hyde, Edward (Earl of Clarendon), 274, 299, 305, 335, 521.
Hyder Ali, 416, 417.

Income Tax, 474.
Independents, 283.
India, 416, 491, 507.
Indian Mutiny, 489.
Indulgence, Declaration of, 323.
Inkermann, 486.
Inns, 333.
Ionian Islands, 516.
Ireland, 289, 304, 339, 428.
Ireton, Henry, 290.
Irish Church Act, 512.
Irish Land Act, 512.
Ironclads, 495
Ironsides, 282.

Jamaica, 294.
James I., 253–265, 334.
James II., 317–326.
James, the Old Pretender, 366.
Janissaries, 466.
Japan, 515.
Jeffreys, Chief-Justice, 320.
Jena, Battle of, 441.
Johnson, Samuel, 374, 429.
Jones, Inigo, 335.
Jonson, Ben, 334.
Joyce, Cornet, 284.
Junius, Letters of, 405.

Kars, 488.
Khiva, 518.
Khyber Pass, 473.
Killiecrankie, Battle of, 339.
Kirke, Colonel, 320.

La Hogue, Battle off, 343
Lamb, Charles, 499.
Lambert, 298, 300.
Landen, Battle of, 343.
Langton, Stephen, 526.
Laud, Archbishop, 267, 272, 282, 526.
Lauderdale, Earl of, 305, 308.
Lawrence, Sir T., 499.
Learning, 334.
Leicester, Earl of, 527.
Leipsic, Battle of, 449, 457.
Leslie, Alexander, 270, 527.
Leslie, David, 270, 283, 291, 527.
Levellers, 289.
Lexington, 408.
Liège, 350.
Ligny, 452.
Lillibulero, 324.
Limerick, Siege of, 341.
Lisbon, Earthquake of, 398.
Lisle, Alice, 320.
Liverpool, Earl of, 448.
Livingstone, Dr., 488–500, 513.
Locke, John, 335.
London, 330, 493.
Londonderry, Siege of, 339.
Lords, House of, 502.
Lorraine, 415, 516.
Louis XIV. of France, 297, 307, 314.
Lowestoft, Battle off, 302.
Lucknow, 489.
Luddites, 447.
Ludlow, Edmund, 290.
Lytton, Lord, 499.

Macaulay, Lord, 499.
Macclesfield, Lord Chancellor, 372.
Macdonald, Flora, 383.
Maclure, Robert, 500.
MacMahon, President, 517.
Main Plot, 255.
Malplaquet, Battle of, 353.
Malta, 426, 433.
Mamelukes, 440, 457.
Manchester, Lord, 282.
Mar, Earl of, 365.
Marengo, Battle of, 431.
Marlborough, 325 349,350, 359, 527.
Marston Moor, Battle of, 282.
Mary II., 337–344.
Mary Stewart, 527.
Masaniello, 288.
Masham, Mrs. (Abigail Hill), 358.
Massinger, Philip, 334.
Mayo, Lord, 513.
Mazarin, 288, 295.
Meerut, 489.
Mehemet Ali, 478.
Melbourne, Viscount, 468, 473, 528.
Mexico, 515.
Militia Bill, 278.
Miller, Hugh, 499.
Milton, John, 289, 334, 528.
Minden, Battle of, 390.
Ministry, The, 502.
Mogul, The Great, 355.
Mohocks, 399.
Mompesson, Giles, 261.
Monk, General, 292, 300, 528.
Monmouth, Duke of, 309, 311, 318, 320, 528.
Monopolies, 260, 261.
Montcalm, 391.
Montfort, Simon de, 528.
Montreal, 395.
Montrose, Marquis of, 283, 290, 528.
Moore, Sir John, 443.
Moore, Thomas, 498.
More, Sir Thomas, 529.
Moriscos, 259.
Moscow, Burning of, 448.
Murat, Joachim, 441.
Mutiny Act, 338.
Mutiny, Indian, 489.
Mysore, 421.

Namur, Siege of, 343.
Nantes, Edict of, 271, 328.
Napier, Charles James, 529.
Napoleon I., 424, 451, 456.
NapoleonIII.,478,493,517.
Naseby, Battle of, 283.
Navarino, Battle of, 467.
Navigation Act, 292.
Nelson, Horatio, 424, 437, 529.
Netherlands, 415.
Newark, 284.
New Brunswick, 423.
Newbury, Battles of, 280, 282.
Newcastle, Duke of, 388.
New Model, Cromwell's, 283.
News-Letter, 333.
Newton, Sir Isaac, 321, 403, 529.
Nile, Battle of the, 427.
Nile Exploration, 496.
Nimeguen, Treaty of, 308.
Nore, Mutiny at the, 425.
North Briton, The, 405.
North, Lord, 406.
Nottingham, 279.
Noy, 268.

Oates, Titus, 309.
O'Brien, Smith, 480.
Occasional Conformity Bill, 356, 359.
O'Connell, Daniel, 446, 474, 529.
Odessa, 484.
Orders in Council, 438
Ordinance, Self-denying, 283.
Ormond, Duke of, 361.
Ormond, Marquis of, 289.
Oudenarde, Battle of, 352.
Owen, John, 335.
Oxford University, 321.

Palmerston, Lord, 445, 463, 482, 487, 510, 529.
Paris, Treaties of, 398, 449, 456.
Parliament, Short, 269; Long, 272, 298; Rump, 285; Barebone's, 293; Pensionary, 300.
Parliaments, Triennial, 344; Septennial, 367.
Passaro, Battle off Cape, 367.
Patriots, The, 372.

Stanhope, Earl, 367.
Star Chamber, 260, 267.
Steam-ships, 494.
Steele, Richard, 403.
Steinkirk, Battle of, 343.
Stephenson, George, 500.
St. Giles's, 269.
St. Helena, 455.
St. Petersburg, 355.
Strafford, Earl of, 267, 272–274, 532.
Strikes, 469, 513.
Strode, William, 277.
St. Vincent, Battle off Cape, 425.
Suez Canal, 514, 516.
Sunderland, Charles, Earl of, 359, 367, 369, 532.
Sunderland, Robert, Earl of, 310, 323, 324.
Surat, 259.
Sveaborg, 488.
Sweden, 297, 376.
Swift, Dean, 371, 374, 403.
Switzerland, 440.

Talavera, Battle of, 444.
Tangier, 301.
Taylor, Jeremy, 334.
Tchernaya, 487.
Telegraphs, 494, 511.
Temple, Sir W., 310, 532.
Teneriffe, Battle off, 295.
Tennyson, Alfred, 499.
Test Act, The, 308, 317, 463.
Tests, University, 512.
Texas, 478.
Texel, Battle off, 294.
Thackeray, William M., 499.
Thiers, President, 517.
Thirty, Council of, 310.
Thirty Years' War, 261, 263, 288.
Thomson, James, 374, 403.
Thornhill, James, 403.
"Thorough," 267.
Tilbury Fort, 302
Tilsit, Treaty of, 438.
Times, The, established, 161.
Tippoo Saib, 418, 421.
Titus, Colonel, 295.
Toleration Act, 338.
Tooke, Horne, 424.
Torbay, 325.
Torres Vedras, 445.
Tory and Whig, 313.
Toulouse, Battle of, 448.
Towns, Progress of, 329.
Townshend, Charles, 361.
Trade Unions, 469, 514.
Trafalgar, Battle of, 435.
Treason, Trials for, 345.
Triers, 300.
Tromp, Admiral, 292.
Tubular Bridge, 496.
Turenne, Marshal, 295.
Turks, 315.
Turner, Joseph M. W., 500.
Turnpikes, 333.

Ulster, Plantations of, 257
Uniformity, Act of, 301.
Union, of the Crowns, 253; of the Parliaments, 356; the Irish, 428.
United States, 412; War with, 449.
Utrecht, Treaty of, 353, 355, 360.

Vandyck, 287, 335.
Victoria, Queen, 460, 470.
Vienna, Congress of, 450, 451.
Vigo, 350.
Vinegar Hill, Battle of, 428.
Vittoria, Battle of, 448.
Volunteers, 434.

Wagram, Battle of, 444.
Walcheren Expedition, 444.
Wales, Albert-Edward, Prince of, 510, 514.
Walpole, Robert (Earl of Orford), 358, 359, 369 370, 532.
Walton, Izaak, 334.
War, The Civil, 279.
Washington, George, 391, 410, 415, 532.
Waterloo, Battle of, 451–456.
Wellington (Arthur Wellesley), Duke of, 421, 443, 450, 452, 463, 482, 533.
Wentworth (Earl of Strafford), 260.
Wesley, John, 375.
West, Benjamin, 499.
Westphalia, Treaty of, 263, 288.
Wexford, 290.
Whig and Tory, 313.
Whitfield, George, 375.
Wilberforce, William, 533, 468.
Wilkes, John, 405.
Wilkie, Sir David, 499.
William III., 337–350.
William IV., 464–470.
William of Orange (William III.), 314, 315, 324.
Wolfe, James, 391, 395, 533.
Wolsey, Cardinal, 533.
Wood's Halfpence, 371.
Worcester, Battle of, 291.
Wordsworth, William, 498.
Wren, Sir Christopher, 303, 335.
Wyclif, John, 533.

York, Council of, 267, 273.
York, James, Duke of, 299, 312.
Yorktown, 412.

Zollverein, 478.

Patronage Act, 514.
Paxton, Sir Joseph, 500.
Peel, Sir Robert, 448, 463, 469, 473, 529.
Peers, Creation of, 360.
Pekin Convention, 510.
Pelhams, The, 375.
Peninsular War, 442–450.
Pennsylvania, 315.
Perceval, 445.
Peter the Great, 354.
Peterloo, 460.
Petition of Right, 266.
Petitioners, 313.
Petre, Edward, 323, 324.
Philadelphia Congress, 407.
Philiphaugh, Battle of, 283.
Pilgrim Fathers, 261.
Pitt, William. (*See* Chatham.)
Pitt, William (the younger), 419, 434, 437, 530.
Plague, The Great, 302.
Plassey, Battle of, 390.
Poland, 355, 415, 440, 467, 515.
Poor-law, 469.
Pope, Alexander, 374, 403.
Popish Plot, 309.
Porteous Riot, 373.
Portland, Premier, 438.
Portugal, 271, 466.
Postage, Penny, 494.
Pragmatic Sanction, 376, 377.
Presbyterians, 284.
Press, Freedom of, 311, 345.
Preston, 285.
Prestonpans, Battle of, 379.
Pride's Purge, 285.
Protectionists, 477.
Protectorate, 294.
Prussia, 271, 297, 355.
Public Worship Act, 513.
Pulteney, William, 372.
Punjab annexed, 480.
Purchase, Army, 512.
Puritan Emigration, 268.
Purveyance, 260.
Pym, John, 260, 273, 275, 282, 530.

Quatre Bras, 452
Quebec, 391.
Quiberon, 391.

Raglan, Lord, 485.
Railways, 494.
Ralegh, Sir Walter, 255, 260, 531.
Ramilies, Battle of, 352.
Rastadt, Treaty of, 353.
Reform, Financial, 419, 468.
Reform, Municipal, 469.
Reform, Parliamentary, 419, 445, 458–465, 511.
Regency under George III., 447.
Regulating Act, 417
Remonstrance, Grand, 274.
Restoration, The, 298.
Revolution of 1688, 322–327.
Revolutions, French, 422, 440, 467, 479, 492.
Reynolds, Sir Joshua, 430.
Rhine, Confederation of the, 441.
Richardson, Samuel, 403.
Richelieu, 271.
Rifle, Breech-loading, 495.
Riot Act, 365.
Roads, 333.
Robertson, William, 429
Rochelle, Siege of, 266.
Rochester, Earl of, 348.
Rockingham, Marquis of, 406, 418.
Rogers, Samuel, 498.
Rome, 493.
Rosse, Lord, 500.
Roundhead, 275.
Royal Titles Act, 514.
Rubens, 335.
Rullion Green, Battle of, 305.
Rupert, Prince, 280, 531.
Russell, Lord John (Earl), 464, 477, 511.
Russell, William, Lord, 316, 531.
Russell, W. H , 487
Russia, 493
Rye House Plot, 316.
Ryswick, Treaty of, 343.

Sacheverell, Dr , 358.
Salamanca, 448.
Salisbury, Cecil, Earl of, 257.
Sancroft, Primate, 323.
Saragossa, 443.
Saratoga, 411.
Schleswig, 315, 516.
Schomberg, Marshal, 340.
Scotland, Effects of Union on, 257.
Scott, Sir Walter, 498.
Sebastopol, Siege of, 485, 488.
Sedgemoor, Battle of, 318.
Septennial Act, 367.
Serfage abolished, 515.
Service Book, Laud's, 268
Settlement, Act of, 348.
Seven Weeks' War, 516.
Seven Years' War, 388, 398.
Shaftesbury, Earl of, 308, 309, 313, 531.
Shannon and Chesapeake, 450.
Sharpe, Archbishop, 305, 311.
Sheerness, 302.
Sheridan, Richard, 429.
Sheriffmuir, Battle of, 366.
Ship-money, 267.
Shovel, Sir Cloudesley, 352.
Shrewsbury, Duke of, 361.
Sidney, Algernon, 316 531.
Sidney, Sir Philip, 531.
Sikh Wars, 476, 480.
Sindh conquered, 475.
Six Acts, 460.
Slave-trade, 513.
Smith, Adam, 429.
Sobieski, 315.
Sobraon, 476.
Southey, Robert, 498.
South Sea Scheme, 368.
Sovereign, The, 502.
Spain, 466, 516, 518.
Spanish Succession, War of, 348, 354.
Spanish War, 374.
Speke, John H., 500.
Stafford, Viscount, 310
Stamp Act, 406.

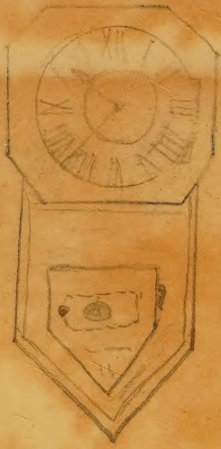
Monday April 13. 1891.

Franklin School

2887

Franklin School.

Thursday Nov 20, 1891.



20 minutes of 11 o'clock

Stuart

125
ar

~~8~~
1.25
~~8~~ 5
6.25 - [illegible]

John [illegible] Blake

Mc
Mt
N
Mn
RJ
Lom
Iseq
Pi
Nd
Ah
Na
Va
Nh

H

W6-AEL-671